



Catechism for Young Children.

REV. LAMBERT NOLLE, O. S. B.

As a rule children do not come to the use of reason before they are six or seven years old. This fact is well known and is also practically applied in the teaching of secular subjects. We catechists too, consider it in several questions, e. g. with regard to the child's obligation to keep the Commandments of the Church regarding abstinence and Sunday observance; we also pay attention to it in giving the younger children less to memorize; but do we give to it sufficient consideration in selecting the matter for explanation and memorizing?

The Education Code of 1902 gives us some very useful indications (p. 119):

A. What children between the ages of five and seven can do:

Picture lessons, object lessons, story lessons, recitations.

B. What children between the ages of three and five can do:

Recitations, nursery rhymes, etc.; picture lessons.

Now let us ask ourselves, whether we bring our religious instruction down to a level, that it becomes as easy or nearly as easy as these other subjects? Are the things which we make the children memorize, as simple and intelligible in idea and wording as their nursery rhymes? Are we trying to work upon their undeveloped intellects through the senses and the imagination, or do we treat them as philosophers by giving them a large amount of abstract terms and long logical conclusions? Do we speak to them in their own language, i. e. in simple words and short sentences; or do we throw at them metaphysical and theological terms and long periods, which convey just as much meaning to them as if we addressed them altogether in that language from which the terms are borrowed?

How plain and simple are the addresses of our Blessed Lord and His Apostles, recorded in the New Testament, or the instructions which the holy Doctors of the Church gave to their Catechumens. And yet they all spoke to adults. They knew that beginners cannot bear much, that there must be room for gradual development. If, therefore, St. Paul found it necessary to give them only milk and not yet solid food, because they were little as far as faith and spiritual strength were concerned, is it not even more important for us, to bear this in mind when dealing with those who are little in every respect, but especially as regards their intellect? The only way to do them justice is to stoop down to them, and to lead them up gradually step by step.

First of all we must remember that their power of abstraction is very little developed. Their ideas are not clear; they do not as yet grasp essential differences, but distinguish the things from each other by some external

and striking features. Our treatment of religious truths can therefore only start with similar ideas; we ought to use descriptions instead of definitions, bristling with technical terms. "Such a definition," says Father Glancey (*Introduction to Knecht's Commentary* p. xi), "cannot but leave a blank."

It might be suggested that the terms might be explained somewhat one by one, and then the children would know something of the definition. Such a suggestion ignores the fact that the children at this age are not capable of a long process of reasoning; that, by the time the second term is explained, they have forgotten what they knew of the first, and that therefore they do not really gain any knowledge by putting the words together.

The incapacity of infants for a lengthy process of reasoning ought also to warn us against burdening them unnecessarily with long statements, which form a kind of summary of whole chapters or of the whole Catechism. At any rate they ought not to be learned at the beginning, but at the end. For this we do not blame the Catechism; for these questions stand in their proper place for the older children who have already learnt the details. In their case the principle "Proceed from the simple to the complex" is not violated.

The definition of faith contains the expression "without doubting." Now doubt is a most unlikely or even impossible state in an Infant's mind. The Infant naturally believes, and only begins to disbelieve after he has been deceived. Doubt means therefore nothing to him. Internal states like doubt, envy, hatred, etc., cannot be explained to Infants by definitions, nor are we allowed to produce them in their souls as we may those of sorrow, hope and resolution. The best way to describe them would be by the help of a story, e. g. Moses at the rock, Cain, Joseph's brethren, yet in such a way that the children abhor them.

Simplicity of idea is not sufficient to make religious instruction plain, unless the language too is simple. It is true, the children must learn to understand and to use to some extent the special language (i. e. the technical terms) of their holy Mother; it is important, to clothe supernatural ideas in terms which do not carry back the Christian's imagination to his profane and often sinful surroundings; but is it necessary to burden our Infants already with many big and hard words? From a religious as well as from an educational point of view it will be difficult to disprove Father Glancey's statement. "Religious teaching comes first, theological explanation a long way second, and theological terms are to be admitted only when they cannot be kept out" (*Knecht, Commentary* p. xii).

Simplicity of language is indispensable in explanation. A term which is not understood by every child in the class, may make the whole lesson useless to several chil-

dren. Here again we must especially study our poor neglected children, whose vocabulary is very meager. Father Furniss found it necessary even with older children of this Class "to take as a model the way, in which the children speak themselves. Instructions . . . unless prepared with extraordinary care, both as to matter and words were lost in them" (Sunday School p. 18). Bishop Messmer, while demanding that the children should learn the terminology of the Church, admits that "in the lower grades and in the small or introductory Catechism things are as much as possible to be put in plain English, good Anglo-Saxon" (*Aspirago's Method* p. 214). In this respect young priests and teachers ought to be very careful not to copy the exact wording of Manuals or Model lessons; these are nearly always written for ideal children who, however, are very rare.

There is therefore no other way for the Catechist to reach the minds and hearts of his children but to learn their language and to adapt himself to their imperfect notions, ideas and their undeveloped capacity for abstract reasoning. He will not be able to move their wills unless he influences their imagination and intellect by concrete expressions and ideas, by the use of pictures, stories, songs, etc. True apostolic zeal will prompt him to become weak with the weak, that he may gain them (1 Cor. 9, 22). He will not refuse to imitate his divine Master and Exemplar, Who, being the eternal Word and Wisdom of the Father, not only stooped down to the intellect and speech of children, when they were brought to him, but Who began His life on earth by becoming a child Himself. And even now He watches over and promotes the spiritual welfare of the little ones, as we learn from His promise: "He that receiveth such a child in My name, receiveth Me" (Math. 18, 4), and from His awful threat against those, who scandalize them.—From "*The Catechist*," B. Herder, St. Louis, Mo., publisher.

Hymns for Month of May.

[These may be sung to some air already known.]

DAILY, DAILY, SING TO MARY.

Daily, daily, sing to Mary,
Sing, my soul, her praises due,
All her feasts, her actions worship,
With the heart's devotion true.
Lost in wond'ring contemplation,
Be her majesty confessed:
Call her Mother, call her Virgin,
Happy Mother, Virgin blest.

She is mighty to deliver;
Call her, trust her lovingly;
When the tempest rages round thee,
She will calm the troubled sea.
Gifts of heaven she has given,
Noble Lady! to our race:
She the Queen who decks her subjects
With the light of God's own grace.

Sing, my tongue, the Virgin's trophies,
Who for us her Maker bore;
For the curse of old inflicted,
Peace and blessing to restore.
Sing in songs of praise unending,
Sing the world's majestic Queen:
Weary not, nor faint in telling
All the gifts she gives to men.

HAIL, QUEEN OF HEAVEN.

Hail, Queen of heav'n, the Ocean's Star,
Guide of the wand'rer here below,
Toss'd on life's surge we claim thy care;
Save us from peril and from woe.
Mother of Christ, Star of the Sea,
Pray for the wand'rer, pray for me.

Sojourners in this vale of tears,
To thee, blest Advocate, we cry;
Pity our sorrows, calm our fears,
And soothe with hope our misery.
Refuge in grief, Star of the Sea,
Pray for the mourner, pray for me.

And while to Him, who reigns above
In Godhead One, in Person Three,
The source of life, of grace, of love,
Homage we pay on bended knee:
Do thou, bright Queen, Star of the Sea,
Pray for thy children, pray for me.

The Organization of a Boys' Choir.

BY WILFRID BRANNON.

For eight years I was organist of a small church in Liverpool, England, and had a very excellent male choir of forty boys and men. Of the twenty-eight boys, but eighteen were allowed to sing at services, the others constituted my probation class. There has been such an interest taken in the boy choir question in this country lately that I am impelled to write with the purpose of saving other organists the troubles which usually present themselves to one that undertakes the organizing of a "green" boy choir. The really great mistake lies in having too many boys. It may surprise many to learn that in St. Paul's, London, a church much larger than most American cathedrals, there are but twenty boys, and their tone is full and round. A great chorus is not alone unwieldy, but it permits of a great amount of laziness, as the boys, not being centralized, take advantage of the slight chance the organist has of picking out the delinquents.

In the beginning I would suggest that about sixty boys be taken to form the boy section of the choir. After three months' training the good should be separated from the bad, and these good ones formed into a regular choir, the others constituting the probationers. Of course, a regular system of vocal exercises should be commenced, for to attempt to teach boys the masses and other music without developing their voices according to the only successful method—that employed in all the great English choirs—would be to invite disaster and failure at the outset. During my stay in Philadelphia, which is almost at an end, I have visited a number of Catholic churches where the boy choir has supplanted the mixed, and in only two churches did I find the boys trained according to the English system. These were the Gesu and St. Patrick's. The progress of the Gesu boys has been remarkable, the choir having been organized but a little over six months. The tone and general effectiveness recalled very vividly some of the splendid choirs in England, and I was surprised and delighted. The boys of St. Patrick's sing very well indeed, but I was sorry that I could not hear them render a mass. I am told they sing a plain chant mass well, but I believe they have not yet sung it on Sunday. I heard several other choirs, but I must say that I was not favorably

impressed, as they gave no evidence of even rudimentary training.

Briefly permit me to lay down a few elementary principles, so that the difficulty of the matter may be lessened. Determine on the number of boys needed. I can only repeat what I have already stated, that you will make a serious mistake if your regular choir is too large. Better a small choir well trained than a large one badly trained. Besides, the labor of getting a big choir under way is terrific, and not infrequently hours of the hardest sort of work are fruitless. For a large church I would say that thirty well trained boys would suffice. It is not to be expected that perfection is to be reached in one single year. In some parts of England boys are kept a whole eighteen months in the probation class, and during that period are not permitted to sing even a vesper chant. Do not make the mistake of being over-strict with your boys, for if you do the singing will suffer. Outside advice should be firmly and absolutely rejected, since the greater amount of this gratuitous criticism emanates from totally irresponsible parties, many of whom are ignorant of the elements of music. Keep away from the parishioners for peace's sake, for a thoughtless remark frequently upsets an organist for many a day. It may be quite a while before success seems at hand, but careful, earnest labor along the proper lines is bound to produce results exceedingly gratifying. The boys should be formed into a little society of their own, and permitted to elect their own president and secretary. These need not exercise any prerogatives, but should be held responsible for the conduct of the boys in charge of the music and cottas and gowns.

At all times take an active interest in your boys. If you only look at it in the right light you will soon realize that they are the dearest and most faithful friends you ever had. They will work until they are almost sung out, and even when you have occasion to be severe with them they make the first advance, anxious to be re-established in your favor. Avoid partiality, and be kind to every one of them. If, after sufficient training, some are found of little use, dismiss them kindly.

The following sentences may be dictated to grammar grade pupils, with instruction to strike out the useless words in each sentence. Or the may all be placed upon the board, and the correct forms written in class or brought as homework the next day. Explanation should be given of the correction in each sentence.

- (1) She is a poor widow woman.
- (2) Find stamp herein enclosed.
- (3) We don't wish for any at all.
- (4) Where have you been to?
- (5) They both met in the street.
- (6) John continued to read on.
- (7) We have got three at home.
- (8) Give me a yard off of this piece.
- (9) The man stepped on to a tack.
- (10) I shall soon have it finally completed.
- (11) We saw no one at all.
- (12) Have you got any news?
- (13) They returned back again.
- (14) He knows more than you think for.
- (15) Iron sinks down in water.
- (16) He combined them together.
- (17) Where was the note written at?
- (18) The balloon rose up fast.
- (19) They had not hardly time.
- (20) We hold an annual anniversary every year.

Church History an Aid In Teaching Christian Doctrine.

BY AN URSULINE, OF KENTUCKY.

The great Dominican, familiarly known as Father Tom Burke, while on a lecture tour to this country in 1872, began a famous lecture in New York City with these words: "I'm the wrong man for the pulpit this evening, there are men here who can teach me." Though great bishops and celebrated theologists sat before him, humble Father Burke was the only man in the assembly, who felt that any one else could grace and honor the pulpit more gloriously than himself. With fullest conviction of their appropriateness, did I make the eloquent Dominicans's words my own, when standing before a little coterie of sister teachers at home; and now, that our association has requested the same address to be placed before a wide circle of readers through the CATHOLIC SCHOOL JOURNAL, more sincerely than ever do I repeat—"I'm the wrong person for this subject," dear readers of the JOURNAL, you could all instruct me. * * *

We, as Catholic teachers, as Religious teachers, know that Christian Doctrine is unquestionably *the* most important branch of the school curriculum. We have also learned that it is in one sense the easiest, and in another the most difficult subject to teach—the easiest, because of our familiarity with the subject, the most difficult because of the vital importance of the work. We may get rusty on some points of civics, mathematics, or philosophy, but we never forget our catechism, those simple truths of Faith which every Catholic is obliged to know. Looking at Christian Doctrine from this point of view, it is a simple subject to handle, and almost any Catholic with an ordinary education can do something in the way of teaching catechism. Nevertheless, we realize that the position of a catechist is not an easy one, but a most difficult one to fill—difficult because the responsibility is so great, especially when we have before us children at that tender, impressive age, upon which all the after years of life depend.

We understand, too, the grandeur of our calling—to spread among Christ's little ones, a knowledge of the truths of that Faith which He came on earth to establish. Theologians have called our mission a royal, apostolic, angelic and divine office; they have even eulogized us as co-operators with the apostles in the grand work of the redemption of the world; and we are, indeed, teaching the same truths which Paul taught so gloriously in Greece and in twenty other countries and islands; that Thomas, amid inconceivable hardships, endeavored to spread among the poor, benighted heathens of India; for which Bartholomew was flayed alive in Armenia, Simon was sawed in two in Egypt, Thaddeus was pierced with arrows in Persia; in fact, we are teaching the same principles of Christianity, for which all the apostles, and countless martyrs gave their lives.

Such considerations as these, made the illustrious Doctors of the Church, St. Augustine, St. Jerome, St. Cyril and St. John Chrysostom, esteem the teaching of Christian Doctrine, one of the most sacred duties of their lives. No wonder, then, that we feel we are treading on holy ground, when we face a class, waiting to hear from our lips such an explanation of their holy religion, that theoretical teaching will pass into practical life. But it is a blessing for us to realize this; it will stimulate us to put soul into our work, and to give Christ's little ones "not a stone when they ask for bread," but words

of light and life which will burn their way into the hearts and minds of our hearers, and make them love their Faith as it should be loved, above everything else in the world.

To fulfill our mission of catechists most successfully, it is necessary for us to be familiar with the history of the Church; we can never fully appreciate the grandeur of our holy religion without knowing the story of its origin, marvelous growth and preservation throughout the ages.

If we have studied the history of the apostles, the ten persecutions with their thousands of martyrs, the Church's centuries of struggles with heresies and schisms, the history of Protestantism and the glorious records of the Papacy, we are bound to love our Faith most ardently, and to be inflamed with zeal to make it known and loved by others.

We take great pride and interest in teaching our pupils the names and deeds of men who have made the history of the world; why not take even more interest and pride in familiarizing them with those illustrious saints and heroes of the Church, who have done far more for the world than Alexander, Caesar, Napoleon and Wellington? Tell, for instance, what the Popes have done for Rome, the labors of the monks to preserve science, art and literature during the Middle Ages, or the careers of the early missionaries of our own country —could a more interesting or a more glorious story be preserved? Many examples could be enumerated showing how well a fact from Church history will often serve to explain and impress a point of Christian Doctrine. Zealous teachers should, on every possible occasion, resort to this means of making their pupils understand and love the beautiful "Faith of Our Fathers."

Closing Up the Work of the School Year.

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Final Examinations.—Where final examinations are the rule, they should be fair tests of work that has been covered, should be free from enigmas, and the language employed should be so clear that there can be no doubt as to the meaning of the questions. Puzzling questions and "hard nuts to crack" may sometimes be offered during recitation in order to arouse mental energy, but not in the examination, where the entire strength of the candidate is to be devoted to proving the thoroughness of his understanding of the subject. The large proportion of a class that has been taught by the examiner himself should pass, else the questions have been too difficult or the teaching has been bad.

The examination should not be a mere test of memory, or a question of fact. Although it must include both of these, it is of far greater importance that it shall determine the accuracy, thoroughness and power attained by the pupil. Of course, the degree of judgment to be expected depends upon the maturity of those examined.

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Tests.—Many schools have recently adopted a system of tests for the purpose of assisting the teacher in deciding the question of promotion. Unlike the examination, the test occurs at the regular time of the recitation, covers a limited amount of work, is unannounced, and is not of vital importance. It is given without disturbance of the accustomed routine of the school, and without loss of time, while the examination requires several days, during which the regular exercises are abandoned and the school thrown into confusion. In set examinations the whole machinery of the school is disorganized, an unnatural and disquieting spirit pervades the pupils, the nervous tension is very great, and the best results of school work cannot be secured. On the other hand, the test, occurring as it does at the regular recitation period, not only avoids these evils, but it also calls forth the best effort of the pupils, because the environment is not unusual, being the same as that of every other day.

As the test covers only a limited amount of work, and as it may take the place of a regular recitation, it may occur whenever a phase of a subject is completed. It may be as frequent as the teacher deems necessary without any baneful effects, because it is given without previous notice and because little stress is laid upon it. No nervousness or unnatural excitement will attend a test given under the foregoing conditions. The moment, however, that it is announced, it partakes of the nature of an examination, and the calling of it by another name

will not change its nature. Pupils will begin to cram for it and get anxious over it. It will be difficult to convince them that the teacher does not attach great importance to the test.

Care should be taken by the teacher to make clear to the pupils that the question of advancement or promotion does not depend upon the test alone. It is only one of several means employed to determine that question. Its main purpose is to enable the teacher and the pupils themselves to perceive how thoroughly the work has been accomplished, in order that weaknesses and errors may be corrected later. While the pupils will understand that more depends upon a test than upon the ordinary recitation, and therefore will exert themselves to do their best, yet the conditions are so normal that, as we have said, they will not be seriously disturbed, as in the case of the examination.

The genuine test shows what the pupils really know —proves it to them as well as to the teacher. Weaknesses discovered can be corrected by later reviews. This is an important advantage of the test. It also secures the educational advantages to be attained by the examinations, namely, the ability to exert unusual power upon occasion, to put readily into good language knowledge possessed, to select the essential and reject the non-essential, to clarify in his own mind the materials at command, and to show where weaknesses exist. The test, therefore, may be employed to secure the ends sought in the examination, and it will sufficiently guide the teacher in determining the progress of his pupils. It will wholly suffice in grades below the high school, and possibly in the high school also. If the examination is still found necessary in a part of the high school work, in college, in discovering fitness for degrees, teachers' licenses, or the civil service, the danger will be minimized because it involves persons of maturity, who are capable of exercising judgment, and who are not easily discomposed. Even with adult students, the test will often fully satisfy all the demands and fulfill the requirements which the examination is expected to meet. In the elementary grades, at any rate, the test may well be employed as a substitute for the examination.

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Reviews.—The review also has its place as a determining factor in promotion, and likewise as a constant educative influence. Reviews should occur daily, and be systematic and persistent in character. Each recitation should begin with a review of previous work in order to

connect the known with the unknown, to call up what is already possessed by the pupil as an introduction to the new material that is to be presented. It also deepens the impression of the old, classifies much that was not fully understood, and fixes the past lessons, while it prepares the class for the reception of the new lesson. "Repetition, repetition, repetition, should be the eternal watchword," said the late Karl Volkmar Stoy. The questions are put differently in the review, the subject is presented in a new light from that of the ordinary recitation, and therefore the pupils obtain a firmer hold upon the lesson.

But besides the daily review in connection with each recitation, there must also be the more extended and formal review which reaches back over the work of days and weeks. Children forget what they have been over, and their knowledge will be revived and fixed by the review. Teachers have often been mortified to find that their pupils have failed in subjects that were believed to have been well taught, and in which the children were thought to be proficient. Doubtless the failure was occasioned by insufficient reviewing of the work, whereas a proper method would have brought all of the units acquired day by day into one consistent whole. The review should aim to look over the entire field and bring all of the parts into a single relation, comprising a symmetrical structure of the knowledge imported.

Hence while frequent reviews may be taken to keep the interest alive, and to keep the whole work before the class, a general and exhaustive review should be had when a subject or some phase of it is completed, rather than periodically. Weekly or monthly reviews do not meet this condition.

Reviews should be both oral and written. By the oral review, the pupil is trained to express himself fluently upon a topic while standing. It is most desirable to secure accurate, connected, and logical statements, in good English. The review admits of such treatment far better than the daily lesson, while the knowledge is still fragmentary. The written review accomplishes the same end in written expression. It has the advantage that all of the pupils are called upon to answer each question simultaneously, and therefore it may be complete and satisfactory. The oral review, however, should not be neglected. Care must be taken not to let the written review run into a test. As the test carries far less weight than the examination, so the written review should carry less weight than the test. The examination, and equally the test, must never enter a new field; must never touch ground that has not previously been covered, because so much depends upon them. But the review may suggest new work without a wrong being committed, since little depends upon it.

To the review, the test, and sometimes the examination, as considerations in promotion, is added the larger factor of the teacher's judgment based upon daily contact during recitation, and in the intimate and sympathetic relations with the children. Further, there is the fact that promotion in itself does not increase knowledge. With all of these agencies at his command, and with a sincere desire to place the child where his greatest progress will be attained and his greatest good subserved, we will find that but few mistakes will be made in the matter of promotion. At the same time, the work of the school will proceed in a natural, salutary manner, and the real purposes of education will be fostered and furthered.—*From "School Management," Hines & Noble, N. Y.*

Misunderstood Children.

ELIZABETH HARRISON.

Great as have been the achievements through the study of chemistry, those which come from a knowledge of psychology have been equally as great to the home, society and the vast institutional world by which civilization is fostered and protected. The study of the inner working of the human mind in the past fifty years has almost revolutionized the school room. It is true that we sometimes see an ox cart with solid wheels sawed from the pine logs laboriously working its way through the mountain districts of Tennessee and Arkansas, but the majority of us are impatient if we speed over the continent in luxurious cars at a rate less than thirty miles an hour. It is true, also, that now and then we find a school whose pedagogical methods correspond to the ox cart and the solid wheel, but, as a rule, the science of education has learned to base curriculums of schools and the method of the class rooms upon psychological facts as firmly established as are the facts of chemistry. We know now that most of the so-called "dull" children are dull of comprehension from defective organs of speech or sight or hearing. We know that many misunderstood children have been accused of obstinacy, willfulness or indifference, who were merely children whose physical organs are not in the right condition. So closely has psychology related the body to the mind, so closely do they show their interdependence.

I had at one time in my kindergarten a little girl whose conduct taxed me sorely; she was in general an obedient and lovable child, but her hand work seemed to me to be inexcusably careless and to show indifference, almost a defiance, to the directions given for it; both she and I shed many tears over the conflicts which had inevitably to rise from the necessity of the work being undone and done over again. Suddenly it occurred to me that the child must have defective eyesight or she could not make such repeated blunders. I walked home with her after kindergarten and suggested to the mother that she be taken to an oculist for the testing of her eyes. The mother resented the implication that her child was in any way defective. I urged the matter of, at least, testing the eyesight, and, at last, won the promise from the mother that she would take the child to the oculist the next day.

The following day the same mother came to me with tears in her eyes and said: "The doctor tells me that my little girl would have lost her eyesight entirely in six months' time had the present strain on her eyes continued." Then she added, almost a sob in her voice: "And I have scolded her so many times for carelessness." I know of another child who was called "old stupid" by her family until she was nearly grown, when the discovery was made that for years she had been hard of hearing. Examples similar to these can be multiplied almost without limit and yet it was not thought necessary to test the sense organs of a child until the psychologist proved that all thought development for clear mental imagery, and that all clear mental images were the result of accurate sense-impressions. I did not stop to-day to speak of the enormous value of this relation of body and mind as proved in the matter of fatigue, and the poison of blood that is created by physical fatigue, and the reaction of the same upon the mental activities.

Anecdotes For The Class.

ON THE VALUE OF PERSEVERENCE.

With what earnestness men ought to exert themselves for the attainment of their highest end! A poor boy once went to a rich merchant and begged him to take him into his employ. The merchant looked at the applicant from head to foot, and said: "Why! you have no boots; you must have a pair of boots before I can take you." The boy went away and by running errands and doing little jobs, he got together enough money to buy a pair of boots. Then he presented himself again at the merchant's office, and said: "Please, sir, I have got boots now. Will you be so kind as to take me into your house of business?" But the merchant told him he could not take him into his service while he was so ragged; he must get himself a better suit of clothes. The boy took his departure without a word. A few months later, he made his appearance again, this time much more respectably dressed. He had earned a little in the meantime and managed to buy some new clothes. Still the merchant was not satisfied; he examined the lad, and found that he was not proficient in reading and writing. So he departed with downcast looks, yet he was not completely discouraged; he took the greatest pains to improve himself in reading and writing. Again at the end of several months he presented himself before the merchant. "Now," he said, "I can read and write a great deal better." When the merchant had tested the truth of this assertion, he at once took the boy into his service, for he thought: "If this mere child can strive to attain his end with such determination, he will make an excellent man of business. Nor was he deceived, for in a few years' time the youth had risen to the highest post in the mercantile house. Now, if men exert themselves so much in order to get a good situation on earth, what trouble ought they not to take for the sake of attaining the one thing of all others most desirable—eternal felicity?

ON PURITY OF HEART AND MIND.

We must pray with a pure heart. A young man who had adopted a licentious manner of life did not, in spite of his vicious habits, omit to say a prayer every day to the Mother of God. One night he had a dream which made a great impression upon him. He dreamed that he was on a journey, and was extremely hungry. Our Blessed Lady then appeared to him, surrounded by angels, and offered him some tempting viands on a very dirty dish, saying: "Take this food and eat it." But he answered that he could not partake of the food because the dish on which it was served was not clean. "Thus it is with thy prayers," the Blessed Virgin rejoined. "They are good in themselves, but thy heart is impure. For this reason thy petitions are not acceptable in God's sight." At that moment the young man awoke. He never forgot that dream; it had the effect of inducing him for the rest of his life to live as becomes a Christian.

AGAINST QUARRELING AND AVARICE.

In a season of scarcity a rich man used to allow the children from some of the poorest families to come to his house daily to get bread. A large basket filled with loaves was placed ready, and every child was allowed to take one. The very first time this was done the children quarreled among themselves; every one wanted the largest loaf. One little girl only was observed to stand aloof and take the last and smallest loaf that was left in the basket. The next day the wealthy donor of the bread had several small silver coins put

into the smallest loaf before it was baked. It fell, as before, to the share of the well-behaved, peaceable little girl. But when, on cutting the loaf, her parents found the money, they told the child to take it back to their benefactor. He would not, however, take it from her, but said: "I had the money put into the loaf expressly to reward you for your peaceable conduct." God does the same; He gives peacemakers a hundred fold more—sometimes even in this life—than what they lose for the sake of peace.

PERFECT AND IMPERFECT CONTRITION.

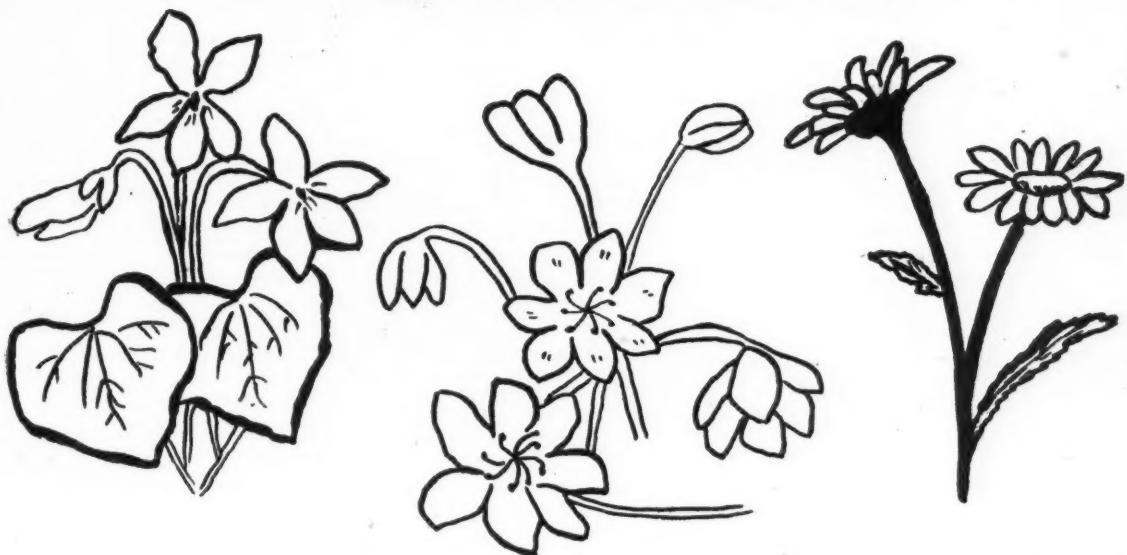
Contrition is either perfect or imperfect. A sick man sent his two boys to the apothecary for some medicine. On their way the lads fell in with a man who was leading a dancing bear, and they ran after him, forgetting the errand on which they were sent. Toward evening they remembered what their father had told them, bought the medicine, and hastened homeward. When they got near the house, one of the boys began to cry, saying: "I am afraid to go in, for I am sure father will flog me." The other said: "We were very wrong to run off like that and displease our good father." The former of the two boys resembles the sinner who is sorry for his sin because he foresees that he will be punished by God. The latter is an example of a sinner who has perfect contrition, who is sorry for his sin because he has thereby offended God. The repentance of the one arises from fear of God; that of the other from love of God.

A FIRM PURPOSE OF SINNING NO MORE.

A young man in a house of business in Berlin had been sentenced to three years' imprisonment for embezzling. When his term had expired, he went to take leave of the prison chaplain. During this interview he expressed the fear that he should not be able to obtain employment. The chaplain spoke encouragingly to him, and exhorted him always to keep the commandments of God, and when seeking a situation invariably to speak the truth. The young man promised to follow this advice. He went first of all to a large mercantile house and asked if employment could be given him. He was brought into the presence of the head of the business, before whom he laid his testimonials—very excellent ones. Then came the question he dreaded: "Where were you during the last three years?" The young man turned pale and answered: "I was in prison." The merchant inquired for what he had been put into prison; the answer was: "For embezzling my master's property." "You venture to say that," the master said, "and at the same time to apply for a situation?" The young man replied that on his dismissal from prison he had promised the chaplain always to speak the truth. Then the merchant, who was prepossessed in favor of the young man on account of his candor and his modest demeanor, asked him if he had also promised the chaplain to be honest and honorable in future? And when he replied in the affirmative, the master said: "Since you have kept your first promise so faithfully under very trying circumstances, I believe that you will also keep the other." He then took him into his employ. Thus what hundreds of others only obtain after weeks or months of tedious waiting, this man found on the first application, on account of his truthfulness and sincerity, though he was at such a great disadvantage. The young man, who conducted himself in the most exemplary manner, later on paid a visit to the prison chaplain and thanked him heartily for his good advice.

Anecdotes and Examples for the Catechism—Spirago-Baxter (Benziger Bros., Publishers).

May Calendar and Blackboard Drawings



Laura Painter Smith.

Language and Reading

Methods and Results in Teaching English

DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENT JOHN DWYER, IN N. Y.
TEACHERS' MONOGRAPH.

In teaching language and grammar it would be well for the teacher to bear in mind these lines from Milton:

"To know that which before us lies in daily life,
Is the prime wisdom."

And what branch of learning, pray, lies more in the daily life of the child and the adult than language? It is not enough that a pupil should know the correct forms of language; they should be incorporated in his daily speech. They should not be learned for the purpose of passing examinations; they should be part of his every day utterances. Many educated adults can pass examinations in grammar, but fail to speak correct English. If grammar be taught for the sole purpose of enabling the pupil to answer technical questions in examinations, it has failed utterly in its purpose.

It has not fulfilled its mission unless it has aided in concise and definite thinking and in correct speaking and writing. In recent years the study of grammar has become so restricted and so indefinite in certain cities it has taken a secondary place to many of the common school branches.

The pendulum has swung from the purely mechanical teaching of this subject to very indefinite, and it may also be said to very indifferent work in this important branch. If in arithmetic it is necessary that the inductive process should be supplemented by the deductive, it is likewise essential in grammar that the analytic method should be followed by the synthetic. Practice in writing and speaking should go hand in hand with analysis. The discerning of relations in analysis is no better mental drill for the pupil than the combining of his scattered thoughts into concise statements.

The pupil's knowledge of grammar should be applied in his oral and written speech. His knowledge of etymology and syntax should be put in practice daily. It is not enough to teach the pupil to know the syntax of pronouns when he sees them in sentences; he should be taught to use those parts of speech correctly. It is of little value to teach the boy the tenses unless he is taught to use the correct tense form in his daily speech.

The more successful the teacher is in this subject, the more will he insist upon the practice of correct English. Placing emphasis upon the synthetic side of grammar and language does not imply that the pupil should not have a thoro knowledge of technical grammar. When this knowledge is made an end in itself, instead of a means to an end, it may be considered of little value, but when it is used as a means only, it is of great importance. It is essential that the boy should have some definite guides to follow in his use of the mother tongue, and grammar should give him those guides. A senseless repetition of the parsing forms, declensions, conjugations, and other mechanical routine work in grammar week

after week, produces very meager results, if the time spent and the energy expended be taken into consideration. If the study of this branch does not give the pupils added power in thought and expression, it has failed in its mission.

An Effective Method of Increasing Oral Reading

The amount of actual oral reading done by each pupil in school is surprisingly small; probably not more than two or three minutes daily, including that done in connection with all studies. The wonder is not that we have so many poor readers, but that we get as good results as we do. The amount of oral reading may, in a great many cases, be very greatly increased by reading aloud at home. Again, the vocabulary and style of composition of school readers are quite different from what will be used after school is completed. Many pupils who can read well in their text-books fail most woefully if asked to read from a newspaper or magazine. Acting on these ideas, we urge oral reading at home. Reports are made to the teacher of the amount of time taken each week, and good credit is given when the standing in reading is made up. The thoroughness of the work is determined by testing and recitation on the topics read. Most teachers have a definite time each week for these reports. One plan is to have each pupil write the titles of his topics on slips of paper. These are collected by the teacher, and the recitation is made to the school. Occasionally the reports are in writing. If these recitations and written reviews are satisfactory, credit is given in language as well as in reading. Usually this is done by allowing the pupil to reject a certain number of the examination questions. None of this work is compulsory. The use of books as a source of reading matter is discouraged. Standard periodicals are recommended. We have specially urged "The Little Chronicle," and have found it most satisfactory. In some rooms, nearly every pupil is now a subscriber and is doing the reading as outlined. It is clean, carefully edited, attractive in appearance, and the articles are written in a most interesting style. We have in most cases found hearty support on the part of the people at home. Probably a part of this support is due to the fact that the matter in the paper is so valuable in itself, and is so well presented. We have now been following this plan for about two years, and I see no reason why it should not be successful in the future.—H. L. Terry, Waukesha, Wis.

English in the Eighth Year

EDWARD R. MAGUIRE IN N. Y. TEACHERS' MONOGRAPHS.

I am very much in favor of the "group" method of teaching. In as many subjects as possible I divide the class into two groups, one more advanced than the other. This first group is expected to do more and better work than the second, which is composed of the duller members of the class; and this expectation purses them on to greater effort. My reasons for favoring the group system are:

1. It gives me a smaller number to look after at one

time, insuring a greater amount of individual attention.

2. It throws the other group upon their own resources in the preparation of their lessons (study period).

3. It gives short periods and frequent change of activity, hence closer attention to the lesson.

This group plan is very useful in composition, "memorizing," arithmetic, history and reading. It is especially useful in composition, as the teacher can give personal attention to every pupil in the group, making corrections, criticisms and suggestions upon each pupil's work privately and quietly while the writing is in progress. This is much better than the method of taking a batch of compositions home and chopping them to pieces. Prevention is better than cure in this case. In teaching composition we must constantly bear in mind the two-fold aspect of the subject. Composition is the expression of thought thru language. These two are fundamental: first, the thought, and second, its expression; that is, the idea, and its arrangement in sentences and paragraphs—the content and the form—the matter and the manner. It is obvious that if undue stress be placed upon either of these the other must suffer. If we select as one subject a lesson in science or nature study, if we make the mistake of using the child's composition as a test of his knowledge in other subjects (overdone correlation is worse than none), we are pretty sure to fail. The child's mind will be occupied with the matter to the exclusion of the style; you will get a written recitation more or less perfect, but not a composition. The converse is just as bad. We must not let the pupil think that style is everything. We must try to strike the proper balance. Let the matter be something worth writing about, above all let it be self-expressive, and the style fitted to the subject—then we will be on the right road.

The appreciative reading naturally goes hand in hand with the work in composition. Their reading of masterpieces brings the pupils into constant contact with the writings of the masters, and such reading is bound to influence their style. Why does anybody read a literary masterpiece? Simply for the pleasure that is derived from the reading. Supt. Maxwell has somewhere emphasized the fact that an essay is a work of art, and it fulfills its highest duty if it does give pleasure to the reader. Here is the point where we can take advantage of our knowledge of the youthful mind by appealing to the natural desire of pupils to imitate what they like—calling their attention to the proper models, they will be only too glad to imitate them, whether the models be of description, narration or exposition. If we can stir in the pupil the innate but latent artistic sense which is in all of us—I mean the desire to produce something which will please others (and in the present course of study we are helped in this by the course in manual training)—more than half the battle is won. If we can make him believe that he can write something worth reading, and that somebody will take pleasure in reading it; that the best essays will be read in the class literary society or printed in the school paper—in short, that he is doing something worth doing and not sim-

ply covering two sheets of paper for the teacher to mark with red ink; if we can make him see that what he is making is a work of art, and what is more, *his* work, something that no human being has ever done before in exactly the same way, an original piece of work such as he can not do in any other direction; if we can do these things we have gone far to enlist his interest in the work, and the "preparation" of one lesson is completed.

My first lesson is taken up with the preparation outlined above. I pick out an interesting passage in the appreciative reading, or from any book in which the pupils have shown a particular interest and pleasure; if possible, a pen picture of one of the characters. We read it together to get a mental image more or less perfect in every mind (and it is surprising to note how many widely differing pictures you will find in the minds of a group of twenty pupils) before beginning to analyze the description. The next step is the discovery that the author has made more than a haphazard arrangement of his ideas—that he did not wander over his subject, but seems to have had some sort of plan about his work. We then proceed to make a blackboard plan of the model, giving the title, the topic sentence and the little subheadings for the other sentences. This will take another lesson. In the next we again take up this plan and reproduce the model paragraph from it as well as we can. It is important that during this lesson the room should be absolutely quiet; no talking by pupils or by teacher, and as little moving about the room as possible; nothing to distract attention from the real work.

Two weeks will probably have been spent in getting this first composition from every pupil. The fifth lesson will be taken up with criticism and correction. It is well to bear in mind that this lesson should possess unity. Do not attempt to correct all the errors in every composition; do not look for errors in spelling and punctuation and lack of unity and lack of clearness and what not all at once. Let each lesson have its own aim. For example, make this lesson a lesson in unity, let the next lesson be one on clearness, the next on coherence, etc., finally going over the composition in search of errors in spelling and punctuation. If these criticisms are self-criticisms, each pupil searching for his own errors, drawing a line thru words or phrases that need changing and writing the better form between the lines, the paper at the end of the month will present a much battered appearance, but it will be all the greater satisfaction to the pupil and teacher to compare it with the final draft which will now be made on new paper. Then the composition can be filed away for future reference, the battle-scarred paper on top of the clean one. A similar plan of work can be used in narration and exposition: 1. Study of a model. 2. Reproduction of the model. 3. Original essays. A list of words which have been misspelled in writing these compositions should be attached to the package and also added to the list of spelling words for the grades. The title page of the package should indicate the following points:

1. Subject. Grade. Date.
2. What preparation made for the exercise.
3. Outlines used.

4. How work was corrected, i. e., by pupils or teacher, or both.
 5. The outcome { general.
 notes on special individuals.

The Child and the Book

[The following excerpt is from A Reading Manual for Teachers, published by D. C. Heath & Co. It is a volume which any teacher can well afford and should possess for careful perusal.]

A class of young teachers were recently asked to recall their own experiences in learning to read. Out of the fifty nineteen had been taught by the alphabet method, altho it had been abandoned in every good school before many of them were born; eleven had been taught by the word method, and as many more by the sentence method; six had taught themselves to read, and in some cases had shown much ingenuity in doing so. The striking feature of this report was the uniform agreement of all as to the feeling toward books awakened by this early work. All agreed that they became indifferent to the reading books, if they did not positively dislike them, associating with them the idea of drudgery. Most of them had learned to love other books.

When does a child begin to dislike his reading book? What are the conditions that induce such a dislike? Has not one reason been discovered by this report? The child associates with these books the idea of drudgery, and probably with just cause. The pleasurable element in his reading work has on the whole been a minimum. With the book there entered forced attention, reluctant acquiescence, tiresome repetitions, —the whole a weary grind.

For the child to become conscious of his work as drudgery is from every standpoint an evil. When he awakens to the fact that he is going to the book because he is told, not because the book invites, the chances of arousing a spontaneous interest are greatly lessened and much has been lost.

How does the child act over the book when he follows the invitation that it gives? He reads and enjoys some one thing until satisfied; when he returns to the book he reads something else. He turns for the second and third time to the stories that he likes, and he goes thru all and lingers longest where pastures are most inviting. His procedure is similar to that of an adult, and why should it not be? What would be the effect on the adult mind if it were denied the right to this natural procedure in reading?

Another cause of drudgery may lie in the character of the book itself. The returns which a child secures from his activity over the book are often very meager in comparison with the labor expended. It is the productive activity that gives the truest pleasure. This fact holds good for the child as well as for the adult. The productive side of reading activity lies in the ideational process. Of the child more can not be demanded than of the adult. He must get something that he wants from a labor that is relatively greater than that of the adult or he is dissatisfied. The ideational activity must have overcome the consciousness of perceptive effort over the words or the child is drudging, and he will soon discover it. He receives returns for

his work in the content; if it is not there he is poorly paid and soon becomes an unwilling laborer.

We must seriously and honestly ask ourselves what the child would like to read about, not what we would like to have him like to read about, before we shall altogether release him from the sense of drudgery. A charming home-made reading book was discovered in the hands of a little girl a few months since. It was teaching her to read, and she loved it dearly. It was made up of funny little situations of the Mother Goose type written in rhyme and accompanied by drawings. The element of wonder is strong in the child, and his love for the fairy tale persists for many years. How have our reading books answered this demand in the child's nature?

If we have neglected the child's interest in making our children's books we have equally neglected his stock of apperceiving ideas. Probably no one has given serious thought to the immense difficulty a child meets in the apperception of the average reading book. To the child bred in a large city many a reading book must appear dull and uninteresting.

When we remember that the child's interest is dependent on the number and character of concepts recalled by the words we must conclude that the child and the object must be brought together in some wholesome way or we must cease to describe these objects in his books. For it is certain that the reading book alone can never teach the child what he has not apperceiving ideas to grasp. Moreover such vague and senseless teaching stultifies the mind and begins the work of intellectual dependence.

It should be noted in this connection that the animals introduced in the fable or the fairy story can not be properly included in this list, since they are there merely as lay figures to point to something else. They are not directly the subjects of thought, nor are they represented in any but a personified way, and this the child instinctively appreciates.

The child's book must be made for him, and he himself must determine what it shall be. Most children's books must be transformed in time, thru the study of children themselves. It may be questioned if they themselves may not help to make them.

Language

Teacher start an original story by giving a few sentences of it. Then call on volunteers for the next sentence. When a good one is given, the one giving it stands on the side of the room. Then another sentence is called for and so on until the story is complete. Then call for a good title. The teacher has a right to discard all offers until she gets a satisfactory sentence, when the successful one takes his place in the line. When all are chosen, the one at head gives title, the teacher recites his sentences and each one in the line gives the sentence which he decided upon. Or the teacher may allow pupils to originate the whole story, including the first sentence. This exercise need take only a few minutes, and is bright and lively, stimulating thought.—Mrs. M. M. L.

Geography and History

Geography and History Match

Many teachers find it difficult to arouse any interest on the part of their pupils in the geography and history lessons. Even after the most energetic efforts on their part, they are disappointed in observing how limited is the knowledge the pupils have acquired concerning these subjects.

This was one of my own troubles during my first experience as a teacher. After trying many other methods, I formed the pupils into a geography and history match, in much the same manner as the old-fashioned spelling match. The results have been satisfactory beyond my highest expectations. It would thus afford me much pleasure to briefly outline my method if by so doing I could render any assistance to teachers who find these subjects not as interesting as they might wish.

The match itself can be carried on to suit the particular circumstances of the school. Teachers in miscellaneous schools can allow all the pupils who are studying geography to take part; and it will not be any serious transgression if Grade VI. pupils are thus caused to study Europe, after all the questions concerning their prescribed work have become exhausted.

We hold these matches every Friday; the same sides remain as first chosen until one side has won twice in three times. This causes one match sometimes to last for three successive Fridays. I found the enthusiasm much greater in this way, than when new "captains" were appointed each week. A pupil on missing a second question takes his seat. The match for the day ends when a specified time has expired, or when one entire side has been obliged to leave the floor.

The greatest difficulty was experienced in the preparation of questions to be answered. The following method was found to be the most satisfactory. Each "geography day" during the week I wrote upon the board a number of questions capable of being answered in the match by a single word. These questions were answered very neatly by the pupils in note-books secured for this purpose,—maps and text-books of course being consulted in doing this exercise. I also kept a list of all the questions given.

On the occasion of the first match, of course, the number of questions will be limited; but they may be repeated until the specified time has expired. At every succeeding match all the old questions are asked, as well as the new ones, which should be added to the list each week.

After following this method for several months, some of the pupils in my department can now describe hundreds of the leading cities of Europe, North America and South America, as well as locate the rivers, lakes, mountains, capes, islands, coast waters, etc. Any teacher taking up this exercise in a systematic way will find it productive of the most satisfactory results.—E. H. Spinney.

A Device in History

The question of many or few dates may be a mooted one, but certainly the dates we do teach must be made indelible. I have found this device of value. I planed a board four inches wide and three feet long, and painted it white. Down the left side I painted the dates I wished to fix in one period, and opposite each date drilled two quarter-inch holes. Making as many pegs as were needed, flattened on one side, I painted on each one some name or key-word. These pegs were given out at recitation as a rapid review. Each one, as the peg is fitted to its proper place, gives a short account of the event. I made two holes opposite each date, so that a pupil can not tell from the fact of one peg already being stuck in the board, whether his peg belongs there or not, since for some of the dates there are two pegs. A separate date board should be made for each period or era studied.—Charles Lowater.

Daily Life Geography

In geography we should try to put the educational maxim about passing from the known to the unknown into practice. There is abundant opportunity for this in making the daily life of the child the starting point. The teacher takes the time that the child spends from the time he awakens in the morning until he retires at night. Below are given a few suggestive questions.

Of what are the bed clothes made? Where were they bought? How were they brought to your house? Where were the horses that drew the wagon raised? (farming) Who made the wagon? (manufacturing) Where might the iron in it have come from? (smelting) Where was the iron ore obtained? (mining) How was it brought to the smelter? (commerce) Tell about smelting iron. What iron articles are used in carrying iron goods? Where might the coal have been obtained that was used in smelting the iron?

Of what other material is the wagon made? (This leads to a review of wood.) Of what was the bedstead made?

These questions are merely suggestive. The cotton or wool in bedclothes might be traced as far as suits the occasion. Trace also articles of food for breakfast, sidewalks, (quarrying) school building material, book material, clothes the children wear, etc.

For a short quick talk a knife may be picked up and traced. All kinds of trades and people as well as different sections of the country can be seen to have been concerned more or less in its production. In this way the brotherhood of man and the real lessons of civilization can be brought home to the child.—A Chicago Teacher.

Geography of the Home State

PROF. WILBUR H. BENDER, IOWA STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, CEDAR FALLS.

I. Reasons for the careful study of the home state of the pupil.

1. It is most closely associated with his personal experiences.

The study of geography is becoming one of relations rather than one of collection of facts. In the early

grades there should not be much effort at classification of cause and effect relations, but there should be careful notice of the close association of certain facts of industrial conditions with specific localities. Lumbering, manufacturing and fishing should become permanently attached to the location and other features of New England the first time the pupil touches the geography of that region. He need not be pushed to try to explain at once the cause of the things he learns, but he should realize that man, as dependent upon the industries of the region, is the central figure of the study of its geography after all. The earth rises to its proper place in the school course, as a study in the later grammar grades, only as it can be shown to have purpose in furnishing the means for the highest possible development of the human race. In the early years of the course, then, the pupil should make his study one of associations of position, climate, surface, rivers, cities, peoples and industries. Later he is to enlarge the fact and to give them full meaning by the study of the causal relations that he may discover between industries, peoples, cities and the geographical features conditioning these things.

The study of home geography lays an excellent foundation for the study of the state of the pupil a little later. In this local study the soil, the seasons, local industries have been made the subject of thought thru the personal experiences of the children. Before they proceed a great deal farther in the course these early ideas should be made to group themselves about the home state. In this way the ideas remain closely associated with personal experiences, while at the same time they assume a larger meaning in the fact that they now are associated with the state rather than the immediate community.

The state should not be studied with the idea that its boundaries terminate its geographical features. In the study of the local geography some of the governmental units should be noticed and it is with these on an enlarged scale that the boundaries of the state should be associated. State boundaries are civil rather than geographical usually. In the matter of geographical features the home state may well be recognized as a part of some larger geographical unit. This lays the stress upon the real features eventually and leads the pupil to see how readily structural conditions glide under state boundaries and refuse to be circumscribed by them.

State geography is no more concrete to the child because of the traditions and conversations of the home. In every community there are persons who have come from other states. If the pupil's own family has not done so he is made conscious of the state from the fact that he has always lived within its borders, while some of his friends have come from beyond its confines. He hears more about his own state and in consequence is in better condition to reach out from local conditions thru his personal experiences to those things of which he hears but with which he has no personal contact. The name of the state becomes the center of a large group of associations in which the individual names are coins that pass current in the discussions of the later work in this subject.

2. The pupil's state becomes the measuring rod which he applies to all other regions.

It is only by use of ideas already in the mind that new ideas can be comprehended. In this way it becomes very essential that the child should have as large a fund of ideas as it is possible to give him before he attempts to go on long excursions into other regions. He sees the industries as studied in his state geography and from these he should be able to make out most of the industries in other countries. The climate of his state becomes the means of interpretation of the climate of countries on the other side of the globe. In like manner other things known aid in his understanding of similar things not known but said to be like what he already knows. Another great advantage in the use of his own state in this way is that it makes him perfectly familiar with it in all its details because of the constant review he is having in the comparisons made. Thru the use of the known to measure the unknown the former is constantly assuming an enlarged meaning to the child.

II. When should the study of Iowa geography be undertaken?

Within the fourth grade and the early fifth the child has passed thru a study of the general features of the surface of the earth as known to his experiences, or such things not experienced as he may readily see out of the experiences which he does have. He knows something of the soil, hills, mountains, valleys, rivers, lakes, the oceans, the air, industry and commerce, governments, the use of maps. Also he should have made a general survey of the earth as a whole. After this survey a general view of North America and of the United States gives excellent preparation for a detailed study of the home state. It is absurd to postpone the study of state geography until the very last thing in the grammar school or until the subject of general geography is reviewed in the high school. It is not so much a question that he ought to know the facts about his own state, altho this is important, but that he ought to be exercised first upon those things that have for him the richest content in the way of relations to his personal experiences. Certainly to the Iowa pupil the geography of his own state should come more easily than the ideas of the geography of New England. If this be true he should be given a chance to study his own state before he takes up the investigation of those so far away.

Another argument for the study of Iowa geography by the Iowa pupil before undertaking the study of other sections of the country is that he should be given a chance to begin to classify his mental products at about the time suggested for him to take up this study. He can certainly classify best those things with which he is most familiar by personal contact and by more frequent associations in conversation and reading. He can be led to put his knowledge of his own state into usable form before he would be able to make use of a knowledge of regions far removed. Likewise he has a series of topics under which to group his experiences in the study of other sections of the United States and the other countries of the globe. He proceeds now both by likenesses to his own state and by differences from it and thus is easily trained in the fundamentals of classification while collecting the new facts about other regions.—Midland Schools.

Number and Arithmetic

Work in Problems

From experience and observation I believe this fact to be true: pupils fail to comprehend problems. It is claimed often that pupils are unable to get the thought from the printed page, hence are unable to solve the problem. It matters not what the cause may be; the fact remains true.

It is not the purpose of this short article to discuss the cause, but to give a few exercises to help in this work.

Oral Problems

1. As soon as the pupils are able to work in number give simple concrete problems, as: James had three marbles and his mother gave him two more; how many did he then have? Instead of having the pupils always give the answer simply train them to make statements, as in the above example: He had the sum of three marbles and two marbles, or five marbles. They may then use the symbolical expression $3+2=5$ to show the process. Thru many simple concrete problems that can be solved mentally the two steps, (a) statement covering the solution, and (b) the symbolical representation, may become familiar.

2. In multiplication instead of always saying: 9 times 5 are how many? or, 5 nines are how many? etc., give concrete problems, as: what will 5 books cost at 9 cents apiece? The books will cost 5 times 9 cents, or 45 cents. Or, the books will cost 9 cents multiplied by 5, which is 45 cents. Or, the product of 9 and 5, which is 45. Hence the books cost 45 cents. The second step, a symbolical representation, should follow. In multiplication two forms are allowed, depending upon the interpretation of " \times ". If you say "multiplied by" for " \times ", then the multiplicand comes first and the representation is 9×5 . Or, if " \times " is used as "times" the expression is 5×9 . Select some definite form of expression and require the pupils to use that form when analyzing the problems. The same will be true in subtraction and division. Have the work so thoroly done that the pupils have a clear, concise and definite form of expression for each fundamental operation. This may seem like "cut and dried" ways of doing things, but results count. I have seen such work done and know that pupils thrive under such treatment when given systematically and as the pupils are prepared to receive it thru natural steps of development psychologically administered.

Written Problems

1. As soon as pupils are able to use a text-book continue the work in problems, passing from the simple to more difficult problems covering the same process. In each lesson give many oral problems containing processes to be found in the written problems, until the pupils are familiar with the forms of expression and know the operations.

Before attempting to solve the problem have the pupils give forms of statement covering the processes to

be used, as: A drover traded 465 cattle worth \$49 a head for a farm of 389 acres worth \$85 per acre, and paid the difference in cash; how much cash did he pay? The teacher thru simple oral problems leads the pupil (a) to see that the question requires amount of cash (dollars) paid, (b) that he has articles with the price of each given and (c) that he wishes to know which value is greater. When this is accomplished the pupil can readily make the statement: He paid as much in cash as the difference between 389 times \$85 and 465 times \$49. The symbolical expression is $\$85 \times 389 - \$49 \times 465 =$. After performing the mechanical process he says: Hence he pays \$10,280.

2. Again, more difficult problems may be taken, as:

A field of 35 acres produces 43 bushels of oats per acre, another of 56 acres produces 47 bushels per acre and a third of 78 acres produces 39 bushels per acre; the grain is all sold for \$12,563.25; what is the price per bushel? The pupil first determines what is given: (a) the number of acres in each field and number of bushels per acre; (b) amount received for all the grain. Required the price per bushel.

The statement: The price of each bushel is the quotient of \$12,563.25 divided by the sum of 35 times 43, 56 times 47 and 78 times 39.

Symbolical statement or equation is:

$$12,563.25$$

$$43 \times 35 + 47 \times 56 + 39 \times 78$$

After performing the mechanical operation he says: Hence he sold each bushel for \$1.75.

Many problems containing the four fundamental processes must be given. Much time should be spent on this easy work in order that a firm foundation be laid. Pupils enjoy it too. They love to do things that have a definiteness about them.

The aim of the work in problems is to have the pupils study the problem so that they know what is given, what is required and the solution. Much of this work should be done without the mechanical processes for the answer. The child should be led to see and feel that a thoro knowledge of how to solve the problem is of greater importance than the solution. The correct solution depends upon accuracy. Skill comes by doing, repetition being the right hand to success.

Possess your soul with patience, continue faithfully along the road of steadfast review and reward will crown your efforts.

I hope to give you ere long my views of analysis of problems and blackboard work.—School Education.

Unpedagogical Devices in Arithmetic

[The following article, written by Dr. E. E. White a few months before his death, exposes certain vicious methods used by thoughtless teachers.]

The art of teaching is based on the fact that the several mental powers are developed by their appropriate activity, and each power by its own activity. This is a bedrock principle of pedagogy. If this be true it follows that all methods and devices in teaching that violate this principle are to this extent unpedagogical. The principle is not only a sure guide in teaching, but it is also a test of methods and devices.

Let us, in its light, glance at a few devices. I recently found in a western city this method of teaching young children to add and subtract fractions:

$$\frac{3}{4} + \frac{1}{3} = \text{what?}$$

There are 12 inches in a foot. $\frac{3}{4}$ of 12 inches are 9 inches and $\frac{1}{3}$ of 12 inches is 4 inches. 9 inches and 4 inches are 13 inches. 13 inches are 13-12 of a foot. Hence $\frac{3}{4} + \frac{1}{3} = 13-12$ or 1-12.

$\frac{3}{4} - \frac{1}{5}$ = what?

There are 12 inches in a foot. $\frac{3}{4}$ of 12 inches are 9 inches and $\frac{1}{5}$ of 12 inches is 4 inches. 9 inches less 4 inches are 5 inches. 5 inches are $5 \cdot 12$ of a foot. Hence $\frac{3}{4} - \frac{1}{5} = 5 \cdot 12$.

It must be clear that this method violates the principle that every mental power is trained by its own activity. The power to add fractions is sought to be developed by adding integers—i. e., the power to do a certain thing is trained by doing something else! The power to be acquired in the addition and subtraction of fractions is the ability to change the fractions to like fractions. This ability is not acquired by changing fractions to integers. The method not only violates a fundamental principle in teaching, but it is useless. Pupils who are old enough to learn these fraction processes will when properly prepared readily acquire the ability to change the given fractions to like fractions, and this by doing it.

$\frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{4}$ = what?

Change the fraction to twelfths. $\frac{2}{3} = 8 \cdot 12$; $\frac{1}{4} = 3 \cdot 12$; $8 \cdot 12 + 3 \cdot 12 = 11 \cdot 12$.

Another objection to the method of changing the fractions to denominates integers is the fact that it can be applied only to a few fractions. It is not a general method, and must be abandoned when fractions are not specially selected to fit it. Take, for example, $2 \cdot 5 + \frac{1}{3}$; $3 \cdot 5 + 2 \cdot 7$; $3 \cdot 7 + \frac{1}{3}$; $5 \cdot 6 + 3 \cdot 8$; and numerous others. The difficulty involved in the selection of a denominating unit (even when one can be used) is often greater than that involved in changing the fractions directly to like fractions—the natural, generic process. The important thing in first lessons is the use of fractions with small denominators. The formal method of finding the common denominator should not be used in the elementary course.

In another western city children near the close of their first year were drilled on such exercises as the following, the exercises being written on manila paper in chart form:

$$\begin{aligned} 10 \text{ per cent of } 60 &= ? & 50 \text{ per cent of } 24 &= ? \\ 20 \text{ per cent of } 30 &= ? & 12\frac{1}{2} \text{ per cent of } 40 &= ? \\ 25 \text{ per cent of } 100 &= ? & 33\frac{1}{3} \text{ per cent of } 99 &= ? \end{aligned}$$

These exercises were recited by the young pupils with great rapidity, evidently the result of repeated drills, thus:

10 per cent of 60. 1-10 of 60 = 6. Hence 10 per cent of 60 is 6. 20 per cent of 30. 1-5 of 30 is 6. Hence 20 per cent of 30 is 6; and so on.

This was called an exercise in "percentage," a supposed example of correlation, possibly an illustration of the "spiral theory." It must be obvious that such exercises as these do not contain a trace of the percentage process. They are simply drills in finding one or more of the equal parts of numbers. The pupils are taught to read 10 per cent as 1-10, 25 per cent as $\frac{1}{4}$, $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent as $\frac{1}{3}$, and the expressions 10 per cent, 25 per cent, $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent and so on might as well be written in Chinese characters.

The exercises involve the pedagogical errors of attempting to develop the power to do one thing by doing another and different thing—a violation of the fundamental principle of teaching already considered.

It is true that infants can be trained to do such work, but this does not justify it. Pedagogy does not ask what pupils can do, but what they ought to do. Moreover nothing is gained by introducing percentage exercises so early in the course. The power thus acquired has no helpful relation to the number work that properly falls in the first four school years; and, besides, infants have no practical use of any kind for percentage.

It is claimed that in many schools the standing is expressed by "per cent," and even primary pupils thus hear and use the term. It is a pity that any primary pupils are subject to such pedantry, but even this does not justify the so-called percentage drills. A standing of 70 per cent, for example, does not mean to the young pupil a standing of 70-100 of perfection. It simply means 70 on the scale of 1 to 100. It no more involves the idea of percentage than a standing of 7 on a scale of 1 to 10. Indeed, the standing of pupils could be just as well expressed on a letter scale, as H to A, or better still on a graphic scale, as the musical staff.

Another objection to these so-called percentage exercises early in the course is the fact that the method can only be used when the given per cent is an aliquot part of 100 per cent, and in practice this is the exception. For this reason the method is very limited in its application. It is not a general method and is not helpful in acquiring a general method. It is always a pedagogical error to use as an initial process a special device that does not involve or lead to the general process. Exceptions and special cases should follow, not precede, the general process. It may be added that there is no difficulty in teaching percentage to the pupils who are familiar with the elementary decimal processes, and pupils have no use of percentage at an earlier period in the course. An arithmetical process is always taught too early if it has to be introduced by dodging it and teaching something else. The attempt in the schools to teach subjects too early involves a great waste of time and energy. There is certainly no justification for taking a month to teach in the second year what can be better taught in one week or less in the fourth or fifth year.

There is no other branch of instruction in which so many unpedagogical devices are being exploited as arithmetic. It seems to be assumed that children have not the ability to master simple numerical processes in a natural way. Some of the devices urged upon teachers are puerile, if not silly, as, for example, the finding of the cost of three oranges by dividing a rectangle into three equal parts and letting each part (space) represent the price of an orange. Some of these devices may be fitly characterized as a method of teaching dunces, by one of them.

It is urged that devices which are useless in teaching numerical process or number may occasion thinking and thus have pedagogical value. A true course of elementary instruction is so full of occasions for thinking that there is no necessity for making occasions. Thinking for no purpose is not rational training of thought power. Arithmetic is an inductive art and when intelligently taught it affords a fine discipline in clear and accurate thinking.

Number Work Game

Some children's games never grow old. "Drop the handkerchief" is one of these. The principle involved in the old-time game can be used to great advantage in reviewing adding, subtracting, dividing, multiplication and ratio work.

The method is as follows: Form a group of about eight or a dozen in a circle. The teacher begins the game by skipping about in some table, asking the children in turn. The first one who misses goes in the center or "mush pot," then he asks the children in turn around the circle. If the one in the center can answer his own question before the one in the circle can, then they exchange places. If the one in the center asks a question that neither he nor the one asked can answer, then both are in the center and take turns asking questions.

If the examples are asked and answered quickly the children enjoy the game greatly. Of course this is only given once in awhile as review or as a relish to a lesson that has been dry or hard to grasp.—Eva May Moss.

Number Device for Beginners

Draw three circles on the blackboard, one inside the other. Place a number in each; the largest number should be in the smallest or inside circle. Allow one child at a time, standing at a marked distance from the blackboard, to toss a rubber ball and aim to hit one of the circles. Give each child three trials. Require each player to combine the three numbers touched by the ball and give the total immediately. The object of the game is to see who obtains the highest number in his three trials.—Ethel P. Thomas.

Arithmetic Review

From some colored fashion magazine or pretty calendar cut out as pretty a picture of a little girl as it is possible to find. It is better that this paper doll should be in colors, for she is then more attractive to the children, and the larger the doll is the better. Then with the blackboard paper, which can be bought where school supplies are kept, cut out an umbrella. This may be a good size too. Put a little paste at the extreme right-hand edge, at the top and at the left of this paper umbrella. Now paste it right over the face of this doll. Upon this umbrella you have written some examples. It is interesting to watch the many pairs of eyes when this is first displayed. The children are filled with curiosity. The teacher will perhaps say something like this: "Now here is a little girl out in the rain. Would you like to see her face? I have seen it, and I will whisper to you she is very pretty. How we wish we might see her! Perhaps we can. Now those little numbers on the umbrella must be raindrops, and as long as those are there I suppose the umbrella is needed. Whoever can tell the answer to all those little examples may take away the umbrella, then we can see what this child looks like. Who would like to try first?" One after another the children come forward, and by and by some one answers all correctly and the umbrella is removed.—Helen Deane.

Nature Study

The Maples

When we think of the word maple we are apt to have visions of other things besides trees. Maple and sugar or sirup seem to go together, and in fact some of us do not know that there are other maples besides the sugar maple.

This fine American tree is one of which we should be proud. Not only is it a handsome large tree, valuable for its shade and the beautiful colors it wears in the fall, but its wood is hard and valuable,—it is often called rock maple,—and besides all these good qualities it furnishes us with our maple sirup and sugar.

The process of making maple sugar is quite interest-

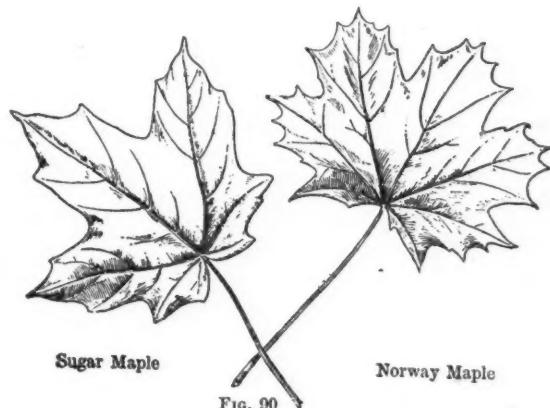


FIG. 90

ing and may be divided into two stages,—gathering the sap, and boiling down.

Very early in the spring, often as early as March, the sap begins to flow up thru the tree. The farmer knows by experience when to tap the tree, which he does by boring a three-quarter inch hole with an auger. Into this hole he inserts a spout of wood or iron thru which the lifeblood of the tree—the sap—flows in a steady drip, drip, drip, into a pail or bucket placed beneath to catch it.

The sap comes in drops about as regularly as the ticks of a clock, one a second. This continues for two or three weeks, until each tree has yielded something like twenty-five gallons. As it takes five gallons of sap to produce a pound of sugar, each tree yields about five pounds of maple sugar. In New England and New York there are maple groves containing thousands of trees, and one farm alone produces five thousand pounds of sugar in a season.

Strange as it may seem, this excessive bleeding of the trees does not kill them unless improperly done. The farmer must not tap them at the wrong time nor in too many places. The tree will stand a great deal if properly treated, but harsh treatment will kill it.

The boiling process is very simple. The sap is poured into large boilers or evaporators and boiled until it be-

comes a sirup. The old-fashioned test to find out when the boiling had been carried on long enough was to drop a little of the hot sirup into the snow or into a cold dish. If it hardened, the boiling was finished.

Fig. 90 shows the leaf of the sugar maple, also that leaf which is most often confounded with it, viz., the Norway maple. Observe the two closely. The sugar maple has blunt, rounded points and is thick, while the Norway has sharp points, which are more numerous, and the leaf is much thinner and more delicate.

Norway, is an importation from Europe, known as the sycamore maple because of its resemblance to the sycamore leaf. It is easily identified by its large size, coarseness, the very long, thick, red stem, and by the fact that its entire edge is finely toothed,—in which point it differs from all the foregoing varieties. Its value as a shade tree is nearly equal to the Norway, and in Europe it is often planted in preference to all other maples.

The Striped Maple

Growing in the shade of other trees and forming part of the undergrowth of our North woods is a small tree known as the striped maple, from the stripes which run up and down its bark. The New England name for this little mountain tree is moosewood, from the fact that the moose is very fond of the bark and twigs, which form his chief food in winter. The leaves are quite large, but very thin, soft, and delicate.

Maple Keys

The fruit, or seeds, of all the maples are known as winged. The flat, thin part gives the seed a swirling motion as it drops from the tree. This is the way nature has of spreading the seed over a large area so that more trees may be started in life. Many tree seeds are winged, but the maple seed or key is so large and so common that every one must at some time have noticed it.

The Ash-Leaved Maple

The ash-leaved maple is a leaf very common in our parks. It has no resemblance to other maple leaves, yet it bears the unmistakable maple key,—“By their fruits ye shall know them.” It is therefore a maple.

The box elder, or ash-leaved maple, is interesting because it is our only maple having a compound leaf; that is, a leaf stem with several distinct leaflets. Compound leaves are very common (notice the hickory leaf and the horse-chestnut), but not on maples, and our ash-leaved maple is a curiosity. It delights in swampy places, but grows almost anywhere. It is a small tree, and its wood is not especially valuable except for making paper pulp.

North America has only nine varieties of maple, while China and Japan have more than thirty. Indeed, it is to Japan, whose forests are largely made up of maples, that we are indebted for some of the most dainty and exquisite trees to be found. The Japan maples planted so extensively on our lawns and in our parks have such a variety of form and color that no written description can do them justice. Fig. 96 will give some idea of their shape and delicacy. The colors, which of course can not be shown, range from dark purple to the most delicate combinations of white and green. The finest of these dainty leaves bears a stronger resemblance to an ostrich plume than to anything in the line of tree leaves.—Elementary Woodworking. Ginn & Co.



FIG. 96. Japan Maples

The sugar maple grows taller and does not cast so dense a shade as the Norway, which is a low-growing tree with close, dark foliage.

The Silver Maple

The one which naturally comes next in the list is the silver, soft, or white maple, as it is variously termed. From the ground up to the topmost leaf the whole character of this tree suggests the word throbred. Clean-cut, refined, strong, and healthy in every detail, the silver maple is a thing of beauty and might truly be called the acme of perfection in tree life. Its name is derived from the fact that the under side of the leaf is silvery white. The upper side being dark green gives a beautiful effect when the wind stirs the foliage, which as a whole has the grace and drooping effect of the American elm.

This description does not always fit, however, as it is planted extensively in cities where horses gnaw the fine bark; smoke, soot, and coal gas discolor the leaves; and the caterpillars complete the work of destroying its beauty. Yet it still lives, even if it does not thrive under such harsh treatment. Its wood is white, soft, and not very valuable.

The Red Maple

A relative of the silver maple and one which might be mistaken for it is the red, swamp, or wild maple. It is this tree which displays the brightest reds in autumn. Referring to the sketch it will be seen that the leaf is smaller and three-fingered instead of five, as in the silver variety. The stem of this leaf is also red during the entire season, as if it could not wait for autumn.

The Sycamore Maple

In the rows on rows of maples so common in our towns and cities one will often find a leaf larger, heavier, and coarser than any of the others. This variety, like the

Experiments with Soil for Primary Grades

It will be noticed that plants grow better in the garden than elsewhere. To answer the question why this is so an examination of the constituents of the soil is necessary.

1. Dry a small amount of the soil and mash the

lumps up fine. Pick out the small stones and test them with acid to find if they contain lime.

2. Take about four ounces of the dirt and rub it thru a wire sieve.

3. Wash the part that will not pass thru the sieve until it is free from the fine dirt. This is the coarse gravel.

4. Again sift thru a finer sieve, wash, and coarse sand will be the result.

5. Take some of the fine material and boil it in a test tube. Pour water over this thru a long tube that reaches to the bottom of the tube and catch the water that overflows.

When the water runs off clear pour off all the water and dry the substance. Fine sand will be the result.

The soil will be found to contain gravel, loam, clay and sand.

Question.—Which soil is best for seeds? Consider:

1. Capacity for each to allow moisture to rise rapidly or slowly.

2. Power of retaining water.

3. Effect of heat on each.

Experiment.—Use three glass vessels; tie loosely a thin cloth over the top of each. Put the same amount of soil in each vessel—in one clay, in another loam and in the third sand. Pour the same amount of water over each and notice that the sand allows the water to pass thru and that the loam holds it.

1. What is the result if the garden is pure loam and the season is wet? Refer to the swamp soil.

2. What is the result if the soil is pure sand and the season is dry?

3. What is the best soil for a garden?

4. At what depth do we find sand?

5. Where do we find pure loam?

6. How did our soil become mixed?

a. Plowing.

b. Earthworms.

7. Effect of heat on soil.

Experiment.—Fill a large can with finely powdered soil and wrap it with many thicknesses of paper. Set it in the sunshine. Test the sand and the loam with a thermometer in the different parts of the can and notice the effect of the heat on each.

How will this affect the seeds?—Second School Year.

Bird Study

The following device in the study of birds has proved very helpful to me:

Fasten to the blackboard an ordinary sheet of white paper such as is used for newspapers and upon this place in pencil the sketch of the bird studied. Talk to them about the color of the bird, then let a child select from a box of crayons the different colors to be used. If he makes a mistake or is in doubt leave that part uncolored until he has learned by observing the bird what colors to use.

I found that by doing this the child's power of observation was very much strengthened. He also learned to be accurate. We have now colored a half dozen sketches, and our bird calendar is by far the most interesting thing in the room.—Minnie S. Johnson.

Drawing and Construction Work

Woodworking in Second and Third Grades

FRED C. WHITCOMB IN DRAWING AND MANUAL TRAINING JOURNAL.

In this grade the children will be able to do work involving processes considerably more difficult than those of the previous year. They have more power in their hands and are able to control them much better. They are able to use measurements and make drawings to the larger measurements. They will use about the same tools as in the first grade, with the addition of one or two tools, but they will be able to use these tools to much better advantage. The chisel can be used with no danger of cutting if care is exercised at first in teaching the pupils how to hold it. Only occasionally will it be wise to permit the use of the knife; in this grade its occasional use should be confined to the larger boys.

While it will be best usually to have the material cut to about the desired size, more square cutting in the straight groove of the miter-box may be attempted than in the first grade. Always have the miter-box securely held in the vise or by some other mechanical means so that the entire attention may be given to the sawing.

I give some drawings suggestive of the work that may be done by the children in this grade. The work of this grade as well as that of other primary grades will be of most value when related to the other school work or interests. The hand-work should be so arranged as to furnish scenes or situations and not in isolated models. For instance, as scenes from Hiawatha showing model of Hiawatha in clay, a cloth wigwam, tree made of twigs, a birch-bark or oil-paper canoe, etc. Or a scene from Robinson Crusoe showing his cave in damp sand or clay, a wooden ladder leading up to it, trees about it, etc. A barnyard scene, home scenes of various nationalities of people are appropriate. Articles that may be used in the play life of the child, looms on which actual weaving may be done, as well as pieces of apparatus to be used in the nature study work, etc., may be made.

Loom—A loom 8x12 inches will be convenient to use. The pieces of wood should be $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick and $\frac{3}{4}$ inch wide and should be given to the pupil cut to the right length. Fasten together with small brads. The nails for the warp threads should be carefully spaced and driven in perpendicularly and to the same depth. On this loom a continuous warp rug or mat may be made. Make this loom early in the year so that it can be used.

Sun Dial—Using the coping saw, cut this out of a $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch piece of basswood or whitewood. File and sandpaper until smooth. Use a piece of tin to produce the shadow. The angle at which this is cut should be determined by the teacher and a pattern made. In some instances the teacher will have to cut out the pieces of tin, as the hands of the pupils will not be

strong enough. Fasten the tin to the wooden disk by means of very small brads, bending them over on the under side. It will be well to bend the tin by means of a vise and make holes for the brads with a larger brad which will not bend. Mark the hours properly on the disk.

Kite—Give each pupil a stick of basswood $\frac{1}{8} \times \frac{1}{4}$ inches and 20 inches long. Have him cut into two pieces 12 and 8 inches long, using the miter-box, having previously measured and marked the stick. Placing the sticks securely in the vise, cut with the knife a shallow notch in each end of each stick to hold the string securely in place. Fasten the two sticks together by means of a small brad or two. Put on the string. It may be necessary to glue over each end of each stick a small piece of paper to hold the string in place; or the string may be tied around the end of the stick. Cut out the paper, making it about $\frac{1}{4}$ inch larger in all directions than the kite frame. Fasten the paper about the string and sticks with paste. Tie in place strings to which to attach the flying string and the tail, which should be made of proper weight by trial.

Frame for Pendulum—This will be useful when studying time and the clock. Give the pupil a block $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick and 5 inches square and a strip $\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{2}$ inch and $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. Have him mark this latter off into two pieces each 13 inches long and one $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches. Saw in miter-box. Put together with $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch brads.

Pin Ball—With the coping saw cut out two disks of $\frac{1}{8}$ -inch basswood each $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter. File and sandpaper until smooth. Cut out a circle of thick

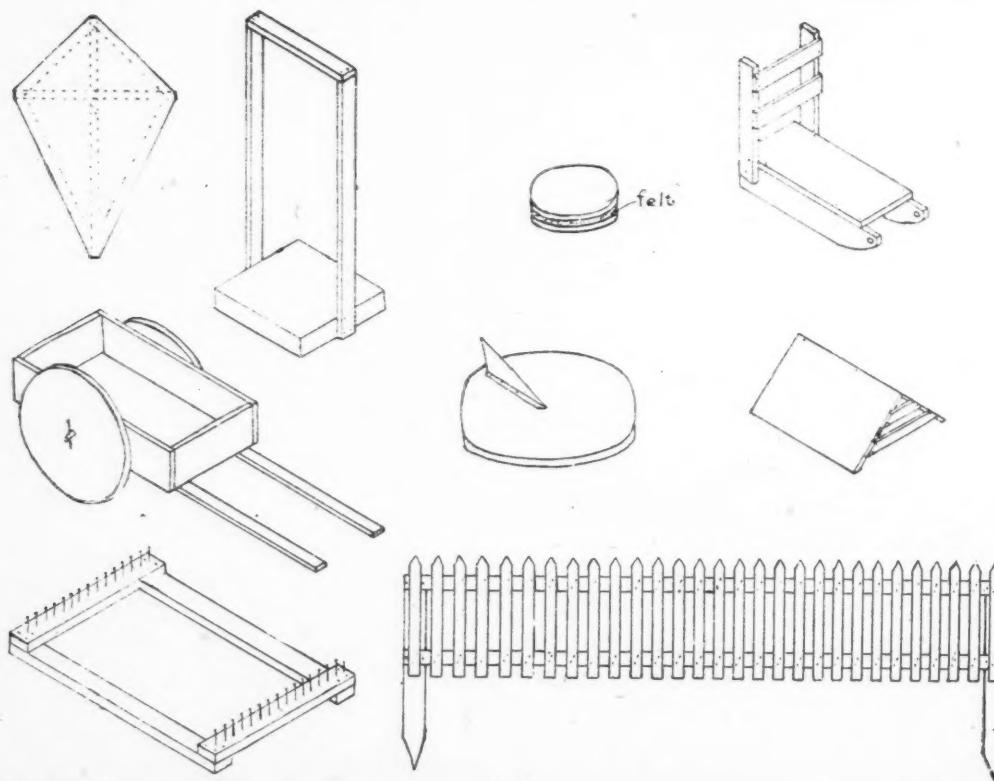
felt of the same size and glue between the wood disks. Use LePage's glue. These wood disks may be stained with a water stain or decorated with watercolors.

Chicken Coop—Two pieces of $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch wood each 4x6 inches. One strip of $\frac{1}{8}$ -inch wood $\frac{1}{2}$ inch wide and about 14 inches long. Nail the two large pieces together, forming a right angle. For the end pieces hold the long strip in place for one piece, mark it and saw in miter-box—45 degrees angle. Nail in place. Cut other pieces in same way.

Cart—Use a cigarbox for the body. Cut out two 6-inch disks, using $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch wood. Make axle and shafts of wood $\frac{1}{8} \times \frac{1}{2}$ inch. Bore $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch hole in each wheel and fit axle to it, using saw, chisel or knife and file. Nail shafts and axle in place. Use a 1-inch nail in each end of the axle to hold wheels in place.

Eskimo Sled—One piece of wood $\frac{1}{4} \times 3$ inches and 7 inches long for top board. Runners $\frac{1}{4} \times 2 \times 8$ inches. Uprights for back $\frac{1}{4} \times 1 \times 5$ inches. Slats for back $\frac{1}{8} \times \frac{1}{2} \times 3\frac{1}{2}$ inches. Shape runners with chisel, knife or saw. Saw narrow pieces to length in miter-box. Use $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch bit for holes in runners. Use $\frac{3}{4}$ - and $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch brads for putting together. This as well as some of the other models may be stained with water stains.

Fence—Posts $\frac{1}{2} \times 1 \times 9$ inches. Shape with saw or chisel and file. Stringers $\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{2}$ inch and as long as desired. Pickets $\frac{1}{8} \times \frac{1}{2} \times 6$ inches. Shape with chisel and file. Before putting pickets in place mark spaces with pencil. Place $\frac{1}{2}$ inch apart. Use $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch nails for fastening stringers to posts and $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch nails (bending over on under side) or $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch nails for the pickets. A gate might be made and fastened to the fence with leather hinges.



Bird boxes out of chalk boxes or other small boxes, houses and barns out of boxes and wagons using boxes for the bodies are additional suggestions for the work of this grade. All of these models suggested may be made in a very simple way not involving processes too difficult for the second grade. The teacher must plan beforehand each article and make its construction the means of many interesting and valuable lessons from the thought side.

A Suggestion to Teachers of Writing

Much of the effort expended by teacher and pupils during the writing exercises in the lower grades is lost because the pupils do not know what they are trying to do. They do not see the details of construction of the letter forms they are trying to copy and as a consequence their work shows no definite improvement even after they have made copies innumerable. Young children should not be troubled and hindered by a verbal analysis of the principles used in letter forms, but a clear mental picture of the correct form is indispensable. Here is a method of teaching them to see the correct form of letters which has been tried and found helpful:

Direct the attention of the class to the letter to be studied by putting before them a good model either on chart or blackboard. Have space lines drawn on the blackboard, and when the children have inspected the model letter and think they know just how it looks send one of them to the board to make it. A comparison of his copy with the model will probably convince him that he did not get a clear mental picture of the form of the letter. Let another one of the class try. He will be likely to correct some of the mistakes of the first copy, and his letter will be more nearly right. All will now be anxious to show how observing they are and how well they can do. Allow one to take colored crayon and correct the first letter made without erasing the original lines. This will help to show just where and what the mistakes in the original were. The teacher may now trace the letter slowly on the board, calling the attention of the children to the height and width of the different parts; to the fact that one turn is sharp, another round, etc.

Now direct the children to open their copybooks and make the letter once. By a few general questions that may be easily framed, without stopping to inspect the work call their attention to the mistakes they have probably made. Have them try again. They will now be ready to criticise their own mistakes, and a few may be allowed to do so orally. Let them try a few more times, stopping after each attempt to compare their work with the copy. Their eyes will be sharpened to see the details of form, the spirit of self-criticism will be aroused and they will work hard to make a good letter.

After this practice one or two may be sent to the board to show the improvement they have made. The comparison with their first attempts will encourage them by showing them what they have gained. The rest of the exercise time may now be devoted to practice to gain manual dexterity. A half-hour's work of this kind will result in more real improvement than can be gained in a week spent in aimless practice.—The Western Teacher.

Natural Activities of Children As Determining the Industries in Early Education

[Katharine E. Dopp in a paper read at N. E. A., 1904.]

When the child is viewed as a part of the social process, he is seen to be at the same time an epitome of the past and a promise of the future. His activities reflect the early history of mankind, and they foreshadow the man that is to be. The form of his body, the structure and arrangement of nerves and muscles, the instincts and attitudes which impell him to act, are inherited from the past. But he lives in the present, and his problem from the first is that of reconciling his physical inheritance from the past with the society into which he is born. The home is the institution which helps the child to take the first steps in the solution of this problem. The function of the elementary school is that of providing opportunities for effecting a more complete solution of the problem.

By virtue of the mechanism he has inherited from the past, the child is a self-active being. The stored-up energy of nerve-centers is constantly seeking an outlet. Previous to the age of seven years the undeveloped body and mind of the child plainly forbid activities which require skill, and which make a demand for the coordination of fine muscles and nerve-centers not yet developed. The growth which is taking place in the large muscles, however, and the energy stored in the nerve-centers which control their movements, make an urgent demand for such large activities as creeping, walking, running, jumping, sliding, swinging, whirling and rolling. These activities, because they represent a technique for which the muscular and nervous system of the child is ripe, afford satisfactory emotional reactions together with such other psychical accompaniments as function naturally within the process.

The free and varied movements involving the use of the large muscles are paralleled by a great variety of apparently unrelated impulses. Change, variety, capriciousness, characterize the child's activities at this time. One impulse follows another in quick succession as new stimuli affect the senses. Attention can be sustained only as means are available for reinforcing the power of stimuli. The child can inhibit action in the presence of dreaded objects, but is not prepared to inhibit thru ideas. The physical mechanism upon which inhibition thru ideas depends is not yet developed.

The child is in bondage to his senses. His alertness to sights and sounds is undoubtedly due to racial habits which were ingrained in nerve and muscle during the dangerous life of the remote past. At first the child is interested in sights and sounds apart from any intellectual content they may have; but even in the "rattle" stage the child uses sense-stimuli to get his relations to objects; and, as he advances, he imitates movements and sounds, and in so doing acquires an experience of greater content.

The fact that the child during the play period is less interested in a round of activities than in the moment of greatest dramatic interest favors expression thru pantomime and dramatic play. Instinctively the child imitates animal movements in his play. A child of three living on a farm imitates activities in which the animals

of the farm play a part. He plays riding or driving the horses, using an imaginary whip in a vigorous way. Again he plays leading, or tying, or catching a horse, as the image of the moment dictates. Sometimes he shows two or three related steps, as in leading and tying the horse, but the sequence is a matter of little consequence.

The rhythmic trotting or galloping of horses, the cries of animals, the songs of birds, the humming of bees, and the human activities which come within the range of his senses, likewise lead themselves to the child's dramatic play. Such imitations permit a natural outlet for the child's surplus energy, and they provide opportunities for securing self-control.

Since pantomime affords a free use of the entire body, it is a favorite mode of communication at the time when the image tends to seek an outlet in the simplest and most direct way. Pantomime can be used in every school. It requires no material equipment. Like all other modes of communication it should be used, first of all, in acquiring and communicating first-hand experience. When this basis is laid, however, it is valuable as a tool for the acquisition and communication of experience gained thru the use of symbols. Used in this way, pantomime stimulates the child to a thoughtful use of his senses, and leads him to make use of the experiences gained in finding his relations to people far removed in space and time.

Since it is thru the image that the child controls his bodily movements and extends his experiences, the chief function of the teacher at this time is that of developing a rich imagery. In doing this it should be remembered that, altho the child is most interested in some striking particular, this striking particular would lose much of its significance if it were dissociated from its natural setting. For this reason the teacher in presenting a subject should recognize the complete situation—the simple round of activities involved in the experience—and allow the child to select from this that which is most significant to him.

Modeling in sand and in clay, drawing, and painting are as well suited to express the child's interest in the dramatic moment of an experience as pantomime. Sand is sufficiently plastic to be adapted to the child's direct attitude, and even clay responds readily to the touch. Drawing and painting make a larger demand for a supple hand, and interpose an instrument between the child and the material upon which his image is expressed; but, if carried out in free and large movements, they are well adapted to express the child's imagery.

The child's interest in materials at this time is not so much for the purpose of construction as to get first-hand contacts with them. They affect his senses and stimulate him to activities which yield rich images. Materials are not yet examined in a critical way. The thing the child can lay his hands upon is made to serve his purpose. In his attitude toward nature he is destructive. He takes what he can get without thinking of the consequence of his acts. The child's interest in results is so slight that playing do a thing is as satisfactory in most cases as really doing it. But whether he works upon materials and produces tangible results, or whether he is engaged in pantomime and dramatic play, he is not disturbed by any sense of his own inability. His pleasure

in the activity and his confidence in taking the initiative are so great as to lead him to experiment in many ways.

We do an injustice to the child when we interpret his varied and fleeting impulses, his interest in striking particulars, and his inability to handle abstract problems as ground for presenting a course of study made up of disconnected facts. Just as occupations relate a variety of impulses and activities, so such subjects as the home, the neighborhood, and simple farm life relate a variety of occupations. The study of such subjects calls for the use of field trips, informal out-of-door lessons, real work, pantomime, play, modeling, construction, painting, drawing, story and song. By allowing the child to participate in planning the most appropriate occupation for the time, and by allowing him to cooperate in securing materials, and in arranging the tangible results of occupations in an order which is suggestive of a natural sequence, by maintaining conditions which are favorable to the growth of the inventive spirit, the way is paved from the impulsive activities, natural to infancy, to habits which involve a higher degree of intellectual control. Series of paintings, constructions, and models which represent the work of the year are invaluable as a means of making the transition to an interest in a whole round of activities.

The changes that take place in the child's occupations during the transitional period are those due to changes which are ushering in the period of childhood. The finer muscles and the nerve-centers controlling their movements are beginning to develop. Means and ends are becoming distinct and the response to stimuli is less direct.

A recognition of the relation of the child's natural activities to the past and to the present makes it evident that the most fundamental experiences of the race at the time it was making the transition from natural to artificial tools are most valuable materials for the child. Those achievements of mankind which constitute the lower rounds of the ladder of human progress, which characterize social life at a time when it was sufficiently simple for the child to understand, which embody processes which he is able to control, which appeal to motives which he is able to appreciate—these furnish the type of occupations best suited to the child of seven years. These occupations are not for the sake of skill, they are not for the sake of utility in the narrow sense of the word; they are, rather, devoted to securing an all-around growth and a rich and varied experience. Tho they take root and find nourishment in the life of the past, they bear fruit for the present and the future.

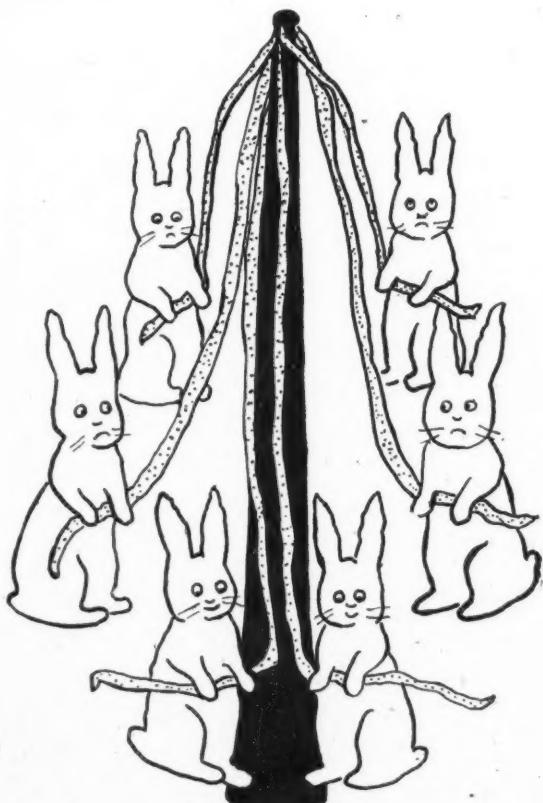
As the child of eight years enters the stage where there is a cessation of physical growth, the energy previously devoted to the growth of mass in the muscle is free to expend itself in a differentiation of mass; that is, in the development of the smaller muscles which are involved in all skilled movements. This change which takes place in the nerves and muscles is accompanied on the intellectual side by an interest in details, by an interest in forming orderly steps for the purpose of securing desired ends. On the emotional side it is accompanied by differentiation in interests, which in turn demands a differentiation of activities.

No longer satisfied with play, tired of a "make-believe"

process, the child demands serious work as well as play and he questions whether stories are true. As he becomes more conscious of the means used for securing definite ends, objects begin to stand out as results of activity. The child is less ready now than before to take the initiative, less confident in his own ability, less direct in his mode of response. He is more critical of materials and products, and more conscious of himself as an agent. As the child becomes conscious of his inability to express his idea in a satisfactory way, training in technique becomes imperative.

Since the demand for technique emerges from an unsuccessful experience, training in technique should follow the attempt to make use of it, and, in turn, should be followed by its successful use. By making training in technique subsidiary to vital experience, skill and insight go hand in hand. Such relations inevitably involve failures, but this is not a matter to be regretted. The child must learn what it means to fail and how to turn failure into success. When he learns to turn back upon his experience, to discover what it was that caused the difficulty, and how to prevent a repetition of the mistake, he has a lesson he can never get from following the methods of dictation.

The problem of the teacher at this time is that of securing the rich imagery necessary for the acquisition of the skill and the insight which the child needs. The solution of the problem must come thru the selection and presentation of objective ends which appeal to the child's interests and relate him to activities of world-wide significance.



May Pole Dance.

Laura Rouninee Smith

School Management

Self-inspection in School Management

SUPT. FREEMAN H. BLOODGOOD, (EAST) WATERLOO, IOWA.

Please read this carefully and refer to it frequently for encouragement as well as for help.

As to My Schoolroom

1. Is the temperature always correct? Authorities tell us that the temperature of a schoolroom should be from 68 to 72 degrees Fahrenheit at the breathing line.

2. Is the ventilation good? If not, am I doing all I can to give my pupils an abundant supply of fresh air?

3. How is the light in my schoolroom, as to its (a) intensity, (b) direction?

4. In what condition of neatness and repair are the following:

The Teacher's Desk

1. Are my books and material neatly and systematically arranged, and is the desk free from dust?

2. Is my desk and the floor about the desk free from waste paper?

3. Are there any mars, stains, pencil, pen or knife marks on the desk, or is the desk broken or out of repair in any way?

The Pupils' Desks

1. Are the books and material arranged systematically and neatly?

2. Are the inkwells supplied with ink and free from rubbish and ink about them?

3. Is there any accumulation of waste paper in the desks or on the floor about the desks?

4. Are the desks free from mars, stains, pencil, pen or knife marks and dust?

5. Are the desks and seats fastened firmly to the floor, and are they in good condition of repair?

The Walls and Woodwork

1. Are there any pen, pencil, knife or chalk marks upon the walls?

2. Is the paper torn, the plastering broken or the woodwork bruised or battered, and are there any cobwebs in the corners?

The Windows

1. Are the ledges free from stains, dust and rubbish, and are the panes clean?

2. Are any of the panes broken or cracked?

3. Are there any cobwebs in the corners?

4. Are the curtains in good condition and are the sashes clean and in good repair?

The Blackboards

1. Are they in good condition of repair and kept properly cleaned?

2. Are the trays free from chalk-dust and rubbish and are the erasers clean and whole?

3. Is the work always placed upon the board neatly and correctly?

4. Is the other apparatus and furniture of the schoolroom in good repair and free from dust?

As to Myself

1. Do I dress neatly and appropriately on different days?

2. Do I show good taste in my choice of colors and combinations in dress?

3. What is my attitude while sitting or standing?

4. What is the character of my voice in pitch and quality?

5. Can I cultivate a better tone and quality of voice?

6. Have I a pleasant and expressive face?

7. Does my countenance inspire confidence?

As to My Method of Discipline

1. Do I appeal to the highest impulses of my pupils?

2. Have I mastery over myself in word and deed?

3. Do I develop self-control on the part of my pupils?

4. Am I just in dealing with offenses?

5. Am I sympathetic?

6. Have I confidence in my pupils and have I their confidence?

7. Am I firm?

8. Am I polite even when administering reproof or punishment?

9. Do I consider the motive which actuated the pupil to commit an offense?

10. Have I tact?

11. Do I reprove publicly or administer reproofs quietly and kindly in private?

12. Does my discipline extend to the playground and does the deportment of the pupils while going to and from school indicate abiding confidence?

13. Is my discipline spontaneous?

14. Do I scold?

15. Do I find fault?

16. Do I discriminate between petty and serious offenses?

17. Do I encourage and develop truth?

18. Do I discourage tattling?

19. Do I insist upon order simply for my own personal convenience?

20. Do I incite my pupils to prompt, vigorous and continued action?

21. Are my pupils courteous to me?

22. Are they attentive in all their work?

23. Do my pupils look up when a person enters the room?

24. Do my pupils work quietly?

25. Do they move quietly about the room?

26. Do they stand erect when reciting?

27. Are my pupils neat and clean in dress and in personal appearance?

28. Do I allow any one to address me without first gaining permission?

29. Do I allow more than one to speak at the same time?

30. Do I allow several to move about the room at the same time?

31. Is there an excessive amount of whispering?

32. Is there a great amount of leaving the room?

33. Do my pupils sit quietly in their seats?

34. Is my discipline uniform from day to day, or do I overlook faults one day that I would correct on another occasion?

35. Do I allow several pupils to talk at once?

36. Do I consider the formation of character the fundamental idea of all discipline?

37. Is it true, "as is the teacher so is the school?"

38. Am I making the community better by living in it?

39. Is the community making me a better teacher or person?

40. Am I dragging thru a miserable existence by just putting in time and drawing my pay?

Music in School

SUPT. CHAS. S. FOOS, READING, PA.

"Singing, when well taught, is as important a subject for the schoolroom as any other branch; and, unlike most other branches, it should be taught from the lowest primary grade to the highest in the ungraded as in the graded school. It is needed to make discipline lighter, school attendance more regular, school management easier, study more interesting, recitation more spirited. What the wings are to the bird, what the blossom is to the plant, what the juice is to the fruit, what the eye is to the face, what fervency is to the voice, singing is to the school."—A. E. Winship.

Emerson says one of the hardest things to do is to think. Society is a troop of thinkers and those who think the best secure the best places. There is no branch in the curriculum of school study more calculated to make pupils think than music. Aside from the mental discipline which it gives it is needed for patriotism, for morality, for health. It is a helper in the direction of good reading and speaking, and develops the power of quick perception and fixed attention.

"Music is a sister to reading and correct intonation and enunciation. Musical notation develops faculties of the memory, of observation and of research, along with geography and elementary science. It is not merely a pastime, a sort of additionally tolerated recess; it is a part of feeding the child-mind and developing taste as in other studies upon which more stress is laid. To teach a child how to control and apply the gifts of voice and tune which God has given him is to add a principle of esthetic culture that rounds him out. Not to so utilize this great gift is like teaching him a restricted use of his mind."

Observe the following suggestions:

1. Require individual work throughout the grades.
2. Insist upon vigorous attack, as only through good attack and sustained enthusiasm can the best results musically be obtained.

3. Always be sure that the children can do what you require of them after proper preparation, and then they must do their best at once.

4. Aim to have each pupil a leader. Excuse mistakes but not shirking.

5. Constantly endeavor to obtain pleasing voice quality, expressive rendering of the music and words and distinct enunciation.

6. Require erect, natural position of the body.
7. Seek in the lower tones of the voice the quality which comes naturally in the upper tones when the pupil sings softly. Soft singing will afford a constant safeguard against straining the voices.

8. Enthusiasm and proper voice quality will do much to prevent flatting.

9. In grades five, six, seven and eight much of the theory work may be embodied in written language lessons.

10. Where three-part music is being sung any one part is no more difficult than the music which was mastered in grades four and five, and pupils should sing each part, when sung separately, with confidence at first trial.

Study the Catechism.

Pius X. Issues an Encyclical Letter Urging More Attention to Catechetical Instruction. Does Not Believe in Ornate Sermons.

POPE Pius X. has just issued an important encyclical letter on the teaching of the Catechism. He lays particular stress on the necessity of the knowledge of our faith and concludes by fixing on certain rules which pastors must hereafter observe regarding catechetical instruction. His Holiness rather decries ornate sermons, "which only tickle the ear" and the "writing of books", which do not bring results adequate to the work. We quote some pertinent paragraphs:

We are aware that the office of catechist is not much sought after because, as a rule, it is deemed of little account, as it does not lend itself easily to the winning of applause. But this, in our opinion, is an estimate born of vanity and not of truth. We are quite willing to admit the merits of those pulpit orators, who out of genuine zeal for the glory of God, devote themselves to either the defense and maintenance of the faith or to eulogizing the heroes of Christianity. But their labor presupposes labor of another kind, that of the catechist. Where the latter is wanting, the foundations are wanting, and they labor in vain who build the

house Too often it happens that ornate sermons which win the applause of crowded congregations serve only to tickle the ears, and fail utterly to touch the heart. Catechetical instruction on the other hand, plain and simple though it be, is that word of which God Himself speaks in Isaías: "And as the rain and the snow come down from heaven and return no more thither, but soak the earth, and water it, and make it to spring and give seed to the sower and bread to the eater; so shall My word be which shall go forth from my mouth; it shall not return to Me void, but shall do whatsoever I please, and shall prosper in the things for which I sent it." We believe the same may be said of those priests who devote much time and labor to the writing of books to illustrate the truths of religion. They are worthy of great commendation for their activity. But how many read these volumes and derive from them fruit that corresponds in any way to the toil and the wishes of those who wrote them. Whereas, the teaching of the catechism, when performed as it should be, never fails to be of profit to those who listen to it.

Now, if what we have said so far demonstrates the supreme importance of religious instruction, it follows that we ought to do all that lies in our power to maintain the teaching of catechism and where the practice of so doing has fallen into disuse there should be a revival of the teaching of catechism, which Benedict XIV. has described as "the most effective means for spreading the glory of God and securing the salvation of souls." Const., Elsi Minime 13).

We, therefore, Venerable Brothers, desirous of fulfilling this most important duty which is imposed upon us by the supreme apostolate, and wishing to introduce uniformity everywhere in this most weighty matter, do by our supreme authority enact and strictly ordain that in all dioceses the following precepts be observed:

I. On every Sunday and feast day, none excepted, all parish priests and, generally speaking, all those who have the care of souls shall throughout the year, with the text of the catechism, instruct for the space of an hour the young of both sexes in what they must believe and do to be saved.

II. They shall, at stated times during the year, prepare boys and girls by continued instruction lasting several days to receive the Sacraments of Penance and Confirmation.

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III. Every day in Lent and, if necessary, on other days after the feast of Easter, they shall likewise by suitable instructions and reflections most carefully prepare boys and girls to receive their first communion in a holy manner.

IV. In each parish the Confraternity of the Christian Doctrine is to be canonically instituted. Through this confraternity the parish priests, especially in places where there is a scarcity of priests, will find valuable helpers for catechetical instruction in pious lay persons who will lend their aid to this holy and salutary work, both from a zeal for the glory of God and as a means of gaining the numerous indulgences granted by the Sovereign Pontiffs.

V. In large towns, and especially in those which contain universities, colleges and grammar schools, let religious classes be founded to instruct in the truths of faith and in the practice of Christian life the young people who frequent the public schools, from which all religious teachings is banned.

VI. In consideration of the fact that in these days adults not less than the young stand in need of religious instruction, all parish priests and others having the care of souls, shall, in addition to the usual homily on the gospel to be delivered at the parochial Mass on all days of obligation, explain the catechism for the faithful in an easy

style, suited to the intelligence of their hearers, at such time of the day as they may deem most convenient for the people, but not during the hour in which the children are taught. In this instruction they are to make use of the catechism of the Council of Trent; and they are to divide the matter in such a way as within the space of four or five years to treat of the Apostles Creed, the Sacraments, the Decalogue, the Lord's Prayer and the Precepts of the Church.

This, Venerable Brothers, we do pre-

scribe and command by virtue of the apostolic authority. It now rests with you to put it into prompt and complete execution in your dioceses, and by all the force of your power see to it that these prescriptions of ours be not neglected, or what comes to the same thing, that they be not carried out superficially. That this may be avoided, you must not cease to recommend and to require that your parish priests do not impart this instruction carelessly, but that they diligently prepare themselves for it.

"School of the Cross."

A New Religious Play by the Oberammergau Peasants to Be Presented in 1905.

Five Hundred to Take Part.

EVERY ten years Oberammergau is the scene of the beautiful Passion Play, in which the now world-famous peasants take their parts so carefully and with such devotion.

The last one was given in 1900, and not until 1910 will another presentation be given there. However, this coming summer the peasant actors will appear in a new play, which they call the "Kreuzesschule" (School of the Cross). The performance will not be presented less faithfully and artistically than the great drama which has made Oberammergau a dramatic shrine; for these villagers wish to

maintain their good name untarnished before the world.

The School of the Cross, as given in 1905, will be a new play christened with the name of an old play formerly given in Oberammergau. This old "Kreuzesschule," like the Passion Play, was initiated in the Middle Ages, and was given thereafter at irregular intervals until its last performance in 1875. At first it was merely a mediæval Bible spectacle without any coherence of action or plan. At each presentation its early crudities were refined, until the ancient jumble of actions became a logical drama of old

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Bible symbolic stories, illustrated by appropriate tableaus from the New Testament.

The new "Kreuzesschule" that will be inaugurated in 1905 and given every ten years (thus breaking up the long decade between the Passion Play years), will enact the story of David, King of Israel, as the antitype of Christ. The dramatic possibilities of the life of the "sweet singer of Israel" have appealed to many modern dramatists; the remote little village of the Tyrol, thus, in choosing this popular theme, shows the grafting of the modern spirit upon the old virtue of adherence to tradition.

The story of David that the performance gives is in poetical form. It consists of eight acts, each act followed by a tableau representation of an important event in the life of Christ: His birth; His baptism; His temptation; entry into Jerusalem; last supper; agony in the garden; crucifixion; the ascension. The play was written by Right Rev. Joseph Hecker, of Munich. Text-books already are printed in German, French and English.

The music of the play was composed by Professor William Muller of Munich. Following the order of the Passion Play, there are some beautiful songs rendered by a full chorus as an introduction to the tableaus. The first performance of the "School of the Cross" will be given on June 4, 1905, the last on Sept. 17. The performance will begin at one o'clock in the afternoon and end at six o'clock.

Nearly half of the population of Oberammergau (five hundred people), will have parts in the revived play. As in the Passion Play no married woman may tread the boards in this sacred play; yet in the representations of large concourses and in the tableaus maidens and children take part. Anton Lang can take no role in the "School of the Cross," since he must appear in his own character of the Christ in the tableaus. Anna Flunger, also the Mary of the Passion Play, is seen only in the tableaus. Many of the other prominent actors in the Passion Play have important roles in the new play: The star role of David is presented as the shepherd-boy by Theodore Lang, aged nineteen.

Some have accused the Oberammergauers of being merely avaricious in their attitude toward their new dramatic venture. There is nothing farther from the truth. The Oberammergauers in the past have been proffered large sums to carry their Passion Play to Vienna and America. Anton Lang has been offered tempting inducements to appear in public in America.

The Wooster Combination Reading Chart for beginners is the only publication of its kind on the market. It was published by Wooster & Co., 228 Wabash avenue, Chicago,

April, 1904, and on May, 1904, was adopted in Kansas for use in all the public schools for five years. Educators everywhere are calling for it. The publishers could not get the charts out fast enough to fill all the orders at the opening of school last fall. This publication is a great boon to large cities or to any crowded class room. Foreign children, just learning the English language, should certainly have the advantage of this chart. There is no other publication that makes the be-

ginning work as clear, easy and interesting.

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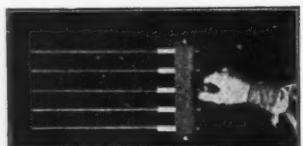
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Catholic Educational Association.

The Association of Catholic Colleges and Universities of the United States, the Conference of Representatives of Catholic Parish Schools, and the Conference of Catholic Seminaries, will hold the next annual meeting in New York City on Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday, July 11, 12, 13, 1905.

These conferences form the three departments of the Catholic Educational Association, which was organized at St. Louis in July, 1904, for the purpose of associating the various Catholic educational interests of the country. The sessions will be held at the Diocesan House of St. Patrick Cathedral, which has been placed at the disposal of the Association by Archbishop Farley.

The following program (which, however, is subject to change) has been issued by Rev. Francis W. Howard, Secretary of the Association:

Monday July 10, 3 P. M.—Meeting of the Executive Board of the Association, Buckingham Hotel.

Tuesday, July 11, 9 A. M.—Pontifical Mass, St. Patrick Cathedral. 11 A. M.—General meeting in Assembly Hall, Cathedral College. Address, Msgr. D. J. O'Connell, D. D. Committees. Registration, 11:30 A. M.—Department meetings. College—History of Philosophy. Paper by Rev. E. L. Rivard, C. S. V. School Catholic View of Moral and Religious Training in Elementary Edu-

cation. Paper by Rev. M. J. Considine. Seminary—The Teachings of Holy Scripture in the Seminary, Rev. Simon Lebl, D. D., Very Rev. James F. Driscoll, S. S., D. D. 8 P. M.—Meetings of committees.

Wednesday, July 12, 9:30 A. M.—Department meetings. College—Catholic College Discipline in the Formation of Character. Paper, by Rev. Francis Cassilly, S. J. School—Supervision of Catholic Schools. Necessity, Methods and Aims, Rev. E. F. Gibbons. Seminary—The Teaching of Pedagogy in the Seminary, Rev. Thos. E. Shields, Ph. D., Rev. Herman Heuser, Rev. Francis P. Duffy. 11 A. M.—College—Statistics of Attendance of Catholic Students at non-Catholic Colleges, and the Causes Thereof. School—Discussion. Seminary—Discussion. 8 P. M.—General meeting. Discussion. Subject to be announced later.

Thursday, July 13, 9 A. M.—General meeting. Business session and election of general officers of the Association. 9:30 A. M.—Department meetings. College—Best Method of Teaching Rhetoric and Poetics in the College Curriculum. Paper by Rev. L. A. Grace, C. M. School—Text Books in Catholic Schools. Paper by Rev. Thomas O'Brien. Seminary—Practical Work in the Seminary as a Preparation for the

Work of the Ministry. Rev. W. C. Hoctor, C. M., Rev. A. Vielan, S. S., J. C. D. 11 A. M.—College—Discussion. School—Discussion. Seminary—Discussion. 12 M.—College—Business session and election of department officers. School—Business session and election of department officers. Seminary—Business session. Election of officers. 12:30 P. M.—General meeting. Business session. Reading of resolutions. Closing exercises. 3 P. M.—Meeting of Executive Board.

There will be a public meeting at 8 o'clock on Thursday evening, July 13th, when there will be addresses by prominent speakers.

A Newfoundland Reader
on Mixed Worship.

To the Editor:

Catholic teachers sometimes find themselves embarrassed at educational conventions or teachers' institutes by being expected or invited to join in prayer at the opening of a session. They feel that it is not right to join in prayer led by a Protestant, and yet they may not know just why they should object. The result is sometimes embarrassment on one side and bitter feeling on the other, especially if objection is taken to a particular form of prayer, such as the doxology which



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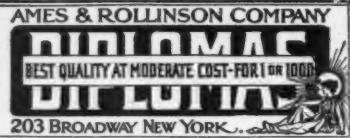
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Protestants add to the Lord's Prayer. This is a situation that can easily be met without embarrassment or bitterness on either side. One of the Catholic teachers can address the meeting to the following effect:

"Mr. Chairman.—I beg to offer a word of explanation in reference to the prayer said at the opening of the session. We all agree in holding that disunion among Christians is one of the greatest evils in the world, and we are all bound to show in some way that we regard unity in religion as a duty. Our way of showing this is not the Protestant way. We take into account, not only the orthodoxy of the prayer, but also that of the leader in prayer. We hold that Christian unity is one of those things in which half measures are not permitted. We think our duty in regard to unity so important, so sacred, and so definite that we refuse to follow the lead of any man in prayer unless that man is one with us in Catholic unity. That is our way of showing that we attach great importance to the duty of unity among Christians. We cannot take any other view of our duty as long as we believe that the Church of Christ is a definite, visible, organized body; and that Christian unity can be attained only by common membership in that body. Protestants look at the matter from a different point of view, and naturally they reach a different conclusion. I am not discussing that view or that conclusion. I am not trying to prove that my own is true. I am only stating our position. There is no question of bigotry or of ill will on either side. We differ in principle and must agree to differ. But we all agree in respecting the man who acts up to what he holds to be his duty, and I am quite sure that no one here expects us to do anything against conscience, even when one thinks our conscience ill informed. I leave it to the good sense of the teachers to say whether we should have any religious exercises in which all cannot join. The simplest solution of the difficulty is for each one to attend to his or her own devotions before coming to the meeting. We can all take up the duties of the hour in a prayerful spirit without any formal act of prayer in common."

This way of stating the Catholic position has the merit of having succeeded perfectly, once at least, in making the Protestants present un-

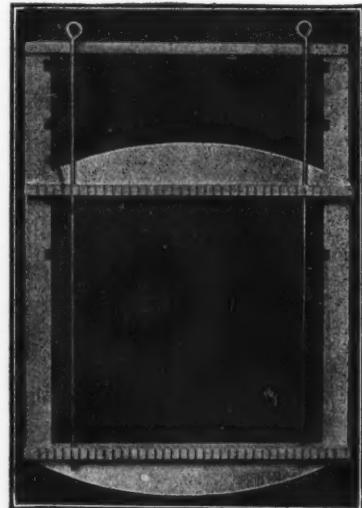
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derstand clearly how it happens that Catholics refuse to join in acts of worship with them, and mutual good feeling was the result.

Charles G. Roebling, of the John A. Roebling's Sons Company, wire rope makers and operators of one of the largest industrial plants in New Jersey, has donated \$20,000 to St. Francis' hospital, Trenton, N. J. The gift is in the form of an endowment, and the Sisters of the hospital will receive \$1,000 a year interest on the principal. This money will be used in helping to maintain the hospital, which has nearly doubled its expenses within the past few years. Mr. Roebling has on prior occasions made princely donations to the hospital in his unostentatious manner, and it was by the merest accident that his latest benefaction became known to the public. The sisters had hesitated about publishing an account of the gift until Mr. Roebling had signified his willingness to have such a thing done. The news of the matter leaked out, however.

In preparation for the opening of the summer novitiate term, the Christian Brothers are pleased to announce that, owing to recent promotions in the senior department of the Normal institute, they are prepared to receive a limited number of candidates for their order, to fill the vacancies this occasioned. As the accommodations are limited, it is desired that application be made at the earliest possible date. Applications received after the required number is reached, will be reserved for the next vacancies. For particulars address, Brother Alfred, Calvert Hall college, Baltimore, Md.

In answer to questions Cardinal Richard, Archbishop of Paris, writes that if the Vatican refuses to allow the Catholics of France to rent churches from the state if the separation bill passes, only nine churches will be left them in Paris—the Church of the Sacred Heart, at Montmartre; St. Francis de Sales, St. George, S. Anthony, St. Anne, Notre Dame de Montrouge, the parish chapel of St. Honore, the Church of Alfortville and Notre Dame at St. Ouen. All the other churches will become the property of the state.

Pius X. is determined that the French Catholics shall pay for the use of private properties rather than contribute a cent to the state. The Vatican contends that all ecclesiastical properties in France not alienated by the revolution were returned to the state, and that the state gave them back to the clergy before the Concordat was signed, so that they now are the property of the Catholic clergy.

At the suggestion of the Vatican authorities some Catholic deputies have introduced an amendment to the bill declaring the principal churches in France national monuments.

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Archbishop Ryan of Philadelphia will go to Rome shortly. While abroad he will go to Ireland and visit the picturesque spot where he was born, in the County Tipperary. "I will take a farewell glimpse of Erin," the Arch-

bishop said, and as he uttered the words the gleam which lightened his kindly gray eyes clearly indicated that the inextinguishable love of the Celt for the land of his birth still glowed warmly in the breast of the venerable prelate, now in his seventy-fifth year.

It is seventeen years since Archbishop Ryan's last visit to the Eternal City, during the latter part of 1887 and the early part of 1888. He was selected to act as the orator at the laying of the corner stone of St. Patrick's church, in Rome.

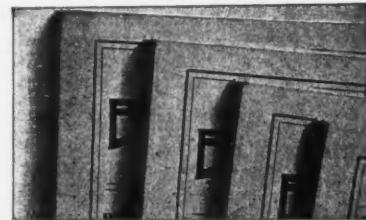
The most "cosmopolitan" city in the United States seems to be Chicago. Here is the census of its speakers of languages, other than English: German, 500,000; Polish, 125,000; Swedish, 100,000; Bohemian, 90,000; Norwegian, 50,000; Yiddish, 50,000; Dutch, 30,000; Italian, 25,000; Danish, 20,000; French, 15,000; Croatian and Servian, 10,000; Slovakian, 10,000; Lithuanian, 10,000; Hungarian, 5,000; Greek, 4,000; Frisian, Roumanian, Slavonian and Flemish, 1,000 to 2,000; Chinese and Spanish, 1,000; Finnish, Scotch Gaelic and Irish Gaelic, 500; Russian, 7,000; Arabic, 250; Armenian, Manx, Icelandic, Albanian, 100; less than one hundred, Basque, Breton, Estonian, Gypsy, Japanese, Portuguese, Turkish.

All records were broken last Saturday in the number of immigrants passed quarantine at New York. Within twelve hours 12,039 foreigners arriving in steerage were permitted to enter New York, indicating that the spring influx of immigrants this year will probably exceed the records for former years.

Ten transatlantic liners brought this army of immigrants to the United States. They began to arrive early in the morning and the last to pass quarantine was the Hamburg-American liner Blucher, which was admitted at 6 o'clock in the afternoon and added 605 names to the already long list of foreigners arriving in the steerage.

The steamer Pretoria brought 2,198 steerage passengers, the greatest of any of the arrivals. The Italia was second with 1,854, and the Weimer was third with 1,571. Other ships admitted carried immigrants as follows: Citti da Napola, 1,442; Gerty, 1,410; Umbria, 646; New York, 586; Hudson (French), 653; Algeria, 1,081.

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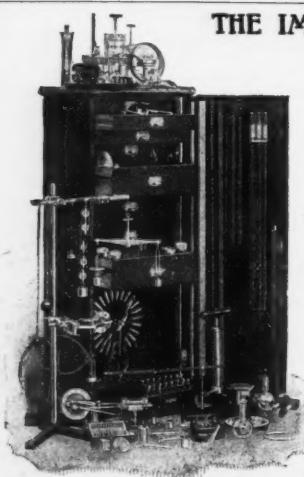
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